
SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

TOWARD PEACE

AS THE successes of United Nations' armies on all fronts bring peace nearer, some shifts of emphasis in the school program become necessary. There must, of course, be no relaxing of the war effort until final victory is achieved. War stamps and war bonds must still be purchased, and to the greatest possible extent. The dangers of inflation must still be understood, and programs to prevent inflation must still be supported. The need for rationing must similarly be understood, and rationing regulations accepted. The school population can still do much to advance the collection of paper and can make some contribution to relieving the labor shortage. Social studies classes can still do much to stimulate such aspects of the war effort.

Even more important, however, as peace draws nearer, is the responsibility of the social studies for developing understanding of the issues and aims of the war and of the problems of the post-war period. This responsibility was emphatically stated in *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory*, the statement of wartime policy adopted by the National Council for the Social Studies in 1942. It will be restated and more specifically defined in a second statement, dealing with conditions, needs, and aspects of educational policy in the post-war period, now being drafted by a committee of the National Council. Many problems and aspects of the period immediately ahead are considered in *Citizens for a New World*, the Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Council published early last summer.

THE WAR aims of the United Nations are rooted in democracy and defense of hard-won freedoms, in opposition to aggression and militarism, and in opposition to one-man and one-party rule. The nature of democracy—its history, its institutions, and its ideals—needs continued explicit attention in the schools, and especially in the social studies program. The nature

of totalitarianism—its roots, its nature and institutions, its weaknesses and dangers—similarly needs explicit attention in our teaching. As the contributors to *Citizens for a New World* make abundantly clear, aggression, militarism, and exploitation of the weak by the strong all menace democracy. War in its modern forms destroys the institutions and the wealth, the humanitarianism and the faith, which are the bases of our civilization. The hope for peace and for civilization rests on the strengthening and extension of democracy, on the checking of aggression, and on provisions for the welfare of all people at a level which reduces the appeal of dictators and aggressors to defeated exploited, disillusioned, or frustrated groups.

Just as the campaigns of war have necessitated a merging of national resources and leadership in a United Nations organization, so the campaigns of peace will require a similar international organization comprising all the nations and peoples that are committed to the maintenance of peace and human welfare. Thinking and planning about the nature of such an international organization has gone ahead rapidly in recent months. It is a responsibility of social studies teachers to keep youth who must in the decades ahead take an increasing part in the conduct and support of national and international affairs abreast of such developments. Agreement on details is not to be expected, but information and thoughtful consideration of proposals and choices is indispensable to intelligent and democratic solution of the problems that we must face.

Furthermore, no government, national or international, can endure without a loyal body of citizens who, however much they may differ on specific issues and policies, are basically committed to support of the government. The League of Nations never developed any large body of such citizens, partly because no program of popular education was established to promote

intelligent world citizenship. If that fatal error is not to be repeated, a new responsibility devolves upon social studies teachers.

THE TASK is as difficult as it is important. The social studies program is already overcrowded. Much of the content of long-established courses in history, civics, geography, economics, and sociology is still indispensable to an understanding of the world in which we expect all our citizens to live and work and vote intelligently. As we have repeatedly been reminded, we need increased attention to the other Americas, the Far East, the Soviet Republics, and to global and air-age geography—to name a few of the more obvious needed revisions. Adequate discussion of these "neglected areas" and of the present war is found in very few of our textbooks and courses of study. Adequate discussion of the problems of the post-war period is as yet to be found in none of these teaching materials. Teachers must turn to periodicals, pamphlets, and other publications supplementary to texts and course outlines, and somehow find time to build new sections into their courses if the urgent need for attention to emerging conditions and issues is to be met.

Magazines and newspapers for the adult public, current-events publications for the schools, organizations like the Foreign Policy Association and the Public Affairs Committee are doing their best to provide such supplementary materials. The National Council for the Social Studies, the Educational Policies Commission, and other bodies concerned with the school program have done much to aid teachers in organizing classroom units on the war and the post-war period at different grade levels. That process must, however, be continued and perfected for each class by individual teachers. Student interest and initiative can, of course, do much to supplement teacher planning as well as to increase the effectiveness of learning experiences.

The war tested our American program of education in citizenship, and the record of the nation's effort in the war testifies that the program has been basically sound, even though it is certainly still subject to improvement. The war challenged the schools and the teachers in the schools. Both responded magnificently. But the peace will again test our program in civic education, and will again challenge our schools and our teachers.

The transition to peace will not be easy for youth. If they find economic adjustment difficult,

if they are disillusioned about the possibilities of world co-operation; if they are disappointed in the hope of a settlement that guarantees continued peace and well-being, the setbacks to democracy in this country and throughout the world will be substantial and dangerous. Much depends on the agencies that form adult opinion—the newspapers and other periodicals, the radio, motion pictures—and on intelligent political leadership and governmental policy. But heavy responsibility devolves upon the schools for developing among youth an understanding of the national and international problems left by the war, of the choices that must be made, and of the nature and dangers of fascist movements which during the past generation have exploited the frustrations of youth.

The response of teachers, including social studies teachers, to the demands of war is one in which we can take continuing satisfaction. Can we, as the demands upon us become less specific, and as our choices become more numerous, make as effective a contribution to the establishment of a peace that is just, that guarantees the democracy and freedoms for which we have been fighting, that is flexible enough to meet changing conditions and needs, and that substitutes orderly world government for irresponsible and destructive aggression?

ERLING M. HUNT

NATIONAL COUNCIL ELECTIONS

LIKE all organizations with a national membership, of which few can ever meet at any one time and of which relatively few can even know one another, the National Council faces a continuing problem in its election procedures. The annual meeting includes only a small proportion of our membership. Those present are never a geographical cross-section, and they are certainly not in a position to make a wise selection from the total membership. Furthermore, there are usually present in a business meeting many individuals who are not members of the National Council. Under the circumstances, the meeting can do nothing more than endorse and elect individuals nominated by some small group. From time to time the objection has been raised that such procedure is undemocratic. As in most such organizations, the objection has considerable justification, but any alternative procedure that is either more efficient or more democratic is difficult to devise.

In some national organizations the power of nomination is vested in a small and slowly ro-

tating body of officers and elected directors who sometimes tend to hold very close control over policy and over nominations if not elections. In order to avoid such a situation the National Council has established a nominating committee to whom during the past several years members have been requested to forward suggestions or recommendations. Successive committees have reported—as have such committees in many organizations—that very few suggestions indeed have ever been received. Perhaps more would be forthcoming if a printed form could be circulated to all members, but such a procedure costs more than our treasury can afford. Similarly, a larger proportion of the total membership might vote in elections if a printed ballot could be circulated to the entire membership, but the objection of expense again arises, and the experience of other organizations indicates that even when a ballot is circulated very many members still fail to vote.

The nominating process seems to lie at the heart of the problem. It is highly important that the best talent of our membership be drawn upon for offices. At present the best clues to talent are offered by publication, leadership in local organizations, and activity on National Council committees. These clues are valuable and effective, and use has been made of them. Nevertheless, in an organization which ought to be, and which desires to be, democratic, every member has a responsibility to supplement such clues with any suggestions and recommendations that his own knowledge and contacts enable him to advance. Limited personal acquaintance certainly constitutes one insuperable obstacle to effective democratic elections. If, however, members will make available such knowledge and judgment as they are able, much of the dissatisfaction with our present procedure would be overcome and the officers elected would undoubtedly be more representative of different sections of the country, of varying interests and points of view within the National Council, and of the various levels of instruction in the social studies area.

THE members of the present nominating committee, which will report at the annual meeting to be held at Cleveland in November,

are Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University, Ithaca, Chairman; Harold Long, Glens Falls, New York; and Paul Seehausen, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Indiana. The committee urgently requests that members submit suggestions as soon as possible for the offices of First Vice-President and Second Vice-President, and for membership in the Board of Directors and on the Nominating Committee. If our usual custom is followed the present First Vice-President will be nominated for the office of President. Such suggestions may be sent to any member of the committee.

E. M. H.

1944 ANNUAL CONVENTION

A LATER page in this issue describes the program of the twenty-fourth annual convention of the National Council. The meeting, which will be the first in two years, has been scheduled in response to requests from many members and in accordance with the conviction of the officers and directors that consideration of war and post-war problems by those who must help reorganize our social studies program is an essential part of the war effort. Even though travel conditions may prevent the Cleveland gathering from being really national in character, and may even make it a "representative assembly," it is highly important that representatives of many groups in our membership meet at this stage of the war to clarify understanding of issues and needs of the war and peace, and to consider the changes in the social studies program that are implied. Both addresses and findings can be published in *Social Education* or elsewhere, and made available to those who are unable to be at Cleveland. The convention will also make possible the careful planning of future meetings, publications, and other activities of the National Council.

The Cleveland meeting, like that held at New York two years ago, is a war meeting, designed to help discharge the responsibility of social studies teachers for advancing the war effort, and for consolidating and protecting the results of approaching victory.

E. M. H.

America on the Eve of War

Walter Johnson

ON DECEMBER 7, 1941, for the second time in twenty-four years, a befuddled American public again found itself at war. The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor stirred Americans to a sickening awareness of the tragedy of having ignored the international responsibilities of a great power. Most Americans, since the end of the First World War, had tried to close their eyes to the realities of the world outside the territorial borders of the United States. Notable individuals and organizations like the League of Nations Association had futilely tried to awaken America from its international lethargy. Until war broke out in Europe in September, 1939, however, their work had been in vain. As soon as a state of war existed on the European continent, Americans began to stir uneasily.

Suddenly with the impact of war, Americans began to widen their horizons. Gropingly they began to realize that America's fate was tied up with the Allied cause. In order to implement this realization with concrete action, a number of internationalist committees were organized with the purpose of seeing that our government carried out the will of a growing majority desirous of an Allied victory. As the Axis powers conquered nation after nation from September, 1939, to December 7, 1941, the United States government reflected this demand by taking steps to make it possible for the remaining Allies to continue their fight against totalitarian domination. The aid rendered the Allies was motivated by the conviction on the part of Americans that a totalitarian victory would be a menace to the security of the United States.

This account of some of the agencies that helped keep American opinion and policies abreast of international developments from 1939 to 1941 was read at the St. Louis meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, in April. The author is assistant professor of history in the University of Chicago, and also author of the recently published *Battle Against Isolation* (University of Chicago Press).

Thus, twice in the span of a few short years the American people have interested themselves in the problems of a world at war. In spite of popular assertions that the United States could isolate itself from the troubles of the rest of the world, when war actually has broken out, Americans have discovered that they cannot ignore the course of events. In both wars there has been the feeling that America's security and future would be threatened if Germany and her allies were victorious. The tragedy of American thinking has been that, although Americans have an awareness of this during war, in the interim period between wars they have forgotten that positive efforts by peace-loving nations are necessary to prevent the outbreak of armed conflict.

REPEAL OF THE ARMS EMBARGO

ISOLATIONISTS in the United States were overjoyed at the passage of the Neutrality Act in 1935. Many believed that a way for keeping the United States out of world troubles had been found. It was expected that this law would insulate the United States from foreign wars. The underlying assumption of this law was that the destruction of democratic nations in the rest of the world was of no concern to America. This assumption had arisen from a false conception of why the United States had entered World War I. Much too widely held was the belief that international bankers and munition makers were responsible for America's entrance.

As war seemed to approach, during 1937, 1938, and 1939, far-sighted internationalists were disturbed at the assumption that the United States could and should stand aside in a conflict between the democracies and the totalitarian powers. If the totalitarian nations threatened to crush France and England, and together with Japan they achieved domination of Europe, Africa, and Asia, the United States would be placed in an isolated, precarious position. If this were the situation, demand for American intervention to prevent totalitarian domination of the world would be inevitable. With this in mind, the internationalist position from 1937 to 1939 was that the United States, in order to prevent a

war which might inevitably require American participation, should join in steps to prevent that war from arising.¹

When the events of 1939 to 1941 demonstrated that the Neutrality Act was working against the best interests of America, and that there was danger that the United States alone might have to face a triumphant Germany, the American people supported its modification and finally its repeal. On September 21, 1939, three weeks after Germany launched her invasion of Poland, President Roosevelt sent a message to Congress urging the repeal of the embargo against selling arms and ammunition to nations at war and substituting a cash-and-carry plan instead. A similar proposal of the President's had been rejected by the Senate Foreign Relations Committee a few weeks before the outbreak of World War II.

FIVE days after the President's message the executive committee of the Union for Concerted Peace Efforts—composed of Hugh Moore, Henry A. Atkinson, Edgar J. Fisher, James T. Shotwell, Charles G. Fenwick, Mary E. Woolley, J. Ashton Oldham, and Clark Eichelberger—organized a Non-Partisan Committee for Peace through the Revision of the Neutrality Law, with the purpose of bringing to the attention of the American people the reasons necessitating the repeal of the embargo clause. William Allen White, editor of *The Emporia Gazette*, was invited to be chairman. White was a logical man to act as chairman. He was from the Middle West, the traditional seat of isolationism; he was an outstanding liberal Republican who at the same time was on good terms with Franklin D. Roosevelt; and by 1939 he had become something of a folk hero to millions of middle-class Americans. Furthermore, he had supported Woodrow Wilson's plans for a League of Nations. From 1933 to 1939 he had joined such organizations as the Union for Concerted Peace Efforts and the American Boycott Against Aggressor Nations.

The League of Nations Association and the Union for Concerted Peace Efforts supplied the new Committee with lists of professional men, college presidents, college professors, leading business men, and labor leaders who received telegrams and phone calls asking for their support. The response to this request was overwhelmingly favorable. The membership was nationwide. Although the headquarters of the Com-

mittee, for practical reasons, was in New York City, geographically it was a national organization. Mr. White's major purpose in heading this Committee was to keep the United States out of war if this were humanly possible. His minor purpose was to work to see that the Republican party did not make the repeal of the arms embargo a partisan issue and thus typify that party as the party of isolation.

The Committee asked its friends to wire or write their Congressmen. Radio speeches were made by Alfred E. Smith, William Allen White and others to mobilize public opinion. White observed in his speech that this war was a clash of the democratic and dictatorial philosophies. "The struggle of two thousands years for human liberty has been wiped out east of the Rhine," he observed. "These European democracies are carrying our banner, fighting the American battle. These democracies . . . are digging our first-line trenches. We need not shed our blood for them now or ever. But we should not deny them access to our shores when they come with cash to pay for weapons of defense and with their own ships to carry arms and materials which are to protect their citizens and their soldiers fighting for our common cause."

By the last week of October the Committee had affiliates in thirty states. Most of the money that supported the Committee's propaganda campaign came in small contributions ranging from five to fifty dollars.

On November 3, the bill to substitute the cash-and-carry plan for the arms embargo passed Congress. The vote in the Senate was 55 to 24 while the vote in the House was 243 to 172. In spite of the work of such leading Republicans as White, Colonel Frank Knox, and Colonel Henry L. Stimson, the majority of the votes against the administration's bill were cast by Republicans. The work of Mr. White and his Committee had, however, significant influence on the favorable vote. Secretary Hull wrote White, "Nobody knows better than I do how great a contribution that was; and everybody here is warmly appreciative of your valuable help." President Roosevelt wrote the Kansas editor, "Dear Bill: You did a grand job. It was effective and most helpful! I am writing this note just to say: 'thank you, Bill.'"

AID TO THE ALLIES

IN JANUARY, 1940, Clark Eichelberger and White agreed on the need of another committee to awaken the American people to the

¹ See, for instance, Charles Seymour, *American Neutrality 1914-1917* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1935), pp. 179-80.

significance of the Nazi movement. When Germany smashed into Norway and Denmark in early April, White went to New York to organize such a committee. On May 17, seven days after the German push through the Low Countries, White sent a telegram to a list of influential people asking for their support of the new committee—the Committee to Defend America by Aiding the Allies. For days after the public announcement on May 20 of the new Committee letters and telegrams poured into Emporia. Roughly, nine out of every ten letters and telegrams were enthusiastic in their support of the Committee. It was necessary for the National Committee to do very little proselyting to organize local chapters all over the country. On the whole, the local chapters were founded in a spontaneous fashion, expressing the deep instincts of the American people for an Allied victory in the war. By July 1, there were three hundred local chapters. This included every state in the Union except North Dakota. The money that was contributed during the Committee's first month averaged \$23 per contributor. The gifts came from all parts of the country representing the national distribution of the members.

The first policy statement of the Committee called for the trade by the Army to the manufacturers of airplanes that the manufacturers could sell to the Allies; for money to aid the French and Belgian refugees; and for a defense scheme with the Allied powers in the Caribbean zone. Literature was distributed and radio addresses were made to arouse the people as to the necessity of aid to the Allies. On June 10, White wired President Roosevelt that "My correspondence is heaping up unanimously behind the plan to aid the Allies by anything other than war. As an old friend, let me warn you that maybe you will not be able to lead the American people unless you catch up with them. . . ."

With the fall of France in June, the Committee grew in strength and members. Aid to England in terms of planes, guns, and torpedo boats was urged by the Committee. Late in June, President Roosevelt released to the manufacturers for sale to England twenty torpedo boats and submarine chasers. On June 29, White conferred with the President about the work of the Committee. At this meeting the President talked to White about swapping destroyers to England for naval bases in the English possessions in the Western hemisphere.

The relationship between the President and

the Committee has been described by White in the following manner: ". . . I knew I had his private support . . . I never did anything the President didn't ask for, and I always conferred with him on our program." The leadership of President Roosevelt was vital to the Committee, White added, for "He never failed us. We could go to him. . . . He was frank, cordial and wise in his counsel. We supported him in his foreign policy, many of us who voted against him in the election. . . . He was broad-gauged, absolutely unpartisan, a patriot in this matter if ever there was one." Furthermore, none of the Committee's objectives was attained which did not have the approval of the Departments of State, Navy, and Army. "Which," as White has observed, "is not bragging. The law required it."

On July 6, White organized a policy committee to aid him in formulating the Committee's objectives. During July and August, 1940, the White Committee organized public sentiment to show the President that the country wanted destroyers to be transferred to England. "If the President really wants to do it," White told his policy committee, "it can be done. But we must show him that the country will follow him in this matter." To achieve this public support, the Committee sponsored rallies and radio addresses—speeches delivered by General Pershing and retired Admirals Yarnell, Stanley, and Sterling were probably of great influence. A Gallup Poll, in the middle of August, revealed that the majority of the public supported the release of the destroyers. On September 3, President Roosevelt announced the release of fifty over-age destroyers in exchange for bases.

The epoch-making events in Europe were definitely shaping America's attitude toward the war. The people realized that the western hemisphere was in deadly peril because of the German successes in France and the Low Countries. They were not yet willing to go to war, but they did favor increased defense measures and aid short of war to the Allies. Shortly after the President's request to Congress on May 16 for increased appropriations to arm the United States, the Senate and the House of Representatives voted close to two billion dollars for the Army and a billion and a half for the Navy. Before 1940 was over, the President's requests for defense, which Congress quickly granted, exceeded ten billion dollars. By this time, too, America was raising an army by conscription. In spite of isolationist cries that the United States was in no danger from Hitler, the public knew otherwise.

TOWARD MILITARY INTERVENTION

THE White Committee contained various shades of opinion. There were some who were extremely conservative about the amount of material to be sent to England, while there were some who wanted the United States to declare war at once. In between these two poles of thought were White, Clark Eichelberger, and a majority of the members. This middle-of-the-road group advocated all legal aid to Great Britain, hoping that this might forestall war for the United States. They never denied that aid to Britain might lead to war, but their contention was that the alternative, isolation, would more surely lead us into war because it would mean that England would go down and then the United States would be left without allies in a hostile world of dictators. During the history of the White Committee an amorphous group of individuals—referred to in the press as the Century Club Group or the Miller Group—operated along parallel lines or at times in collaboration with the White Committee. Francis P. Miller of the Council on Foreign Relations served as the director of this group. As early as June 10, 1940, some members of this group urged a declaration of war by the United States. Later this group was the nucleus of the Fight for Freedom Committee. Mr. White refused to sign the June 10 statement.

During the presidential campaign the White Committee tried to be nonpartisan. White was for Willkie while Clark Eichelberger, who was in charge of organization details, was for Roosevelt. The Committee exerted some influence during the conventions of the two parties to make sure that planks for aid to the Allies were in both party platforms. By November, 1940, the Committee had 750 local chapters. The Committee had collected by this time roughly \$230,000 from over 10,000 donors—an average gift of \$23. The Committee's books were open for investigation and it published a list of its leading contributors—a policy in sharp contrast to the secret policy of its most important opponent, the America First Committee.

The work of the White Committee was opposed by such groups as the America First Committee, the No Foreign Wars Committee, *The Chicago Tribune*, and by such individuals as Hamilton Fish, Rush Holt, Gerald Nye, and Burton K. Wheeler. The main charge of the opponents was that the White Committee was leading the nation into war. This disturbed William Allen White. By December, 1940, he

was extremely tired. Actively heading such a Committee was hard work for man of seventy-two. The failure of England to prevent her supply ships from being sunk greatly worried him too. What good was aid that never arrived?

On November 26, the Committee issued a new policy statement. Although not directly saying so, the statement implied the necessity of repealing the Neutrality Act and convoying ships to Britain. American public opinion as to these moves seemed to vary according to geographical location. The east and west coasts were more agreeable to such steps than the Middle West.

After he returned home to Emporia in December, White, reflecting his own section, became worried over the next steps to take. On December 23, White gave an interview to the Scripps-Howard papers denying that his Committee favored repeal of the Neutrality Act and use of convoys. Immediately the enemies of the Committee tried to claim White as being in sympathy with them. White's executive committee felt that his interview repudiated the policy statement of November 26. Protests from members all over the country led the executive committee to urge White to clarify his interview. When he refused to do so they sent him an ultimatum to come to New York and quiet the rebellion in the Committee's ranks. This led to his resignation as chairman.

Mr. White's resignation probably would have come in due time without the newspaper interview and the reaction that followed. He was deathly tired, Mrs. White was sick, and in his November visit to New York he had told Eichelberger that he would resign before long. The major work of the Committee after White's resignation was to arouse public support for the President's pending proposal before Congress of leasing or lending equipment to England. After the passage of this bill in March, 1941, the Committee to Defend America by Aiding the Allies ceased to play a significant role. Its desires were now part of the law of the land. By late June, 1941, the Committee finally realized that war could not be avoided by the United States since it seemed impossible to defeat the Axis nations without American participation. The Committee, therefore, urged American naval participation in the Battle of the Atlantic.

REPEAL OF THE NEUTRALITY ACT

THE events of the changing war, a war which was growing more and more inevitable for the United States every week, led to closer and

closer collaboration with Great Britain. On August 14, the Atlantic Charter was released. During the fall of 1941 the American navy was forced into a shooting war. On September 4, a German submarine attacked the American destroyer "Greer," which was patrolling the sea lane to Iceland. By this time Hitler had built up a case against himself even in the eyes of many isolationists. The "Robin Moor" had been sunk in the middle Atlantic on May 21; the American-owned "Sessa" had been torpedoed on August 17; the "Greer" had been attacked; the steel "Seafarer" had been sunk on September 7; the "Montana" was sunk on September 11. The sinking of American ships required the revision of the Neutrality Act to permit our ships to be armed. Also Britain was unable to carry American lend-lease equipment safely to its shores. To defeat Hitler it was becoming necessary for the United States to deliver this material. On October 9, President Roosevelt asked Congress to repeal those sections of the Neutrality Act that prevented these two steps.

The isolationists during October and November, 1941, talked as though the United States could choose peace or war, when in reality events had reduced her choice to submission or resistance to aggression. On November 13, the repeal of the Neutrality Act passed Congress. The vote in the Senate was 50 to 37 while in the House it was 212 to 194. In the House only 22 Republicans voted for the bill while 137 were against it. The vote revealed that, in spite of the farsighted leadership of men like Wendell L. Willkie and William Allen White, the Republican party was still at this late date dominated either by isolationism or obstructionist opposition to whatever the President favored. As White stated in his newspaper, the Republican record in Congress was about the record that Hitler would have made if he had been the Republican leader.

LIMITED BELLIGERENCY, AND PREPAREDNESS

WITHIN a few weeks of this vote the United States was attacked by the Japanese. Since 1939 American policy had undergone significant transitions. Strict neutrality had been abandoned in order to give aid short of war to those countries whose resistance to aggression was helping to defend the security of the United States; when the American destroyers "Greer" and "Reuben James" were attacked while patrolling the route to Iceland, the idea that America

could be the arsenal while others did the fighting had to be abandoned. After this America became a limited belligerent by conducting operations along the Atlantic lifeline; all-out war came only when the United States was attacked at Pearl Harbor.

The Fight for Freedom Committee, launched on April 19, 1941, urged the United States to participate in the war long before Pearl Harbor. Some of its members had signed such a call in June, 1940. Most of the members of the White Committee, at least to the summer of 1941, hoped that aid to the Allies would relieve the United States of actual armed conflict. William Allen White illustrates this attitude very well. He realized that the Committee's policy of advancing its objectives from time to time left it open to the charge of edging the country closer and closer to war according to a premeditated plan. But as long as Hitler and the Axis did not stand still, but launched their onslaught on Britain and Russia, the Committee, which believed in defending the United States by aiding the opponents of aggression, also could not stand still. White, and the majority of the Committee members, were sincere in their desire that the United States should avoid war if this course were possible, and their answer to the charge of their opponents was simply that the opponents overlooked the necessity of altering the Committee's program to fit the rapidly changing events of a dynamic situation.

It seems clear that the steps that the United States took from September, 1939, to December, 1941, to place itself clearly on the side of the opponents of the Axis had little to do with the involvement of the United States in a military way. The United States was in much the same position during these years as at the time of the First World War. What happened to the United States depended rather on what Germany and her allies did than on what the United States did. Once war broke out no nation could isolate itself from the effects of that war.

The major contribution of the internationalist committees, mentioned in this paper, was to arouse America to an awareness of the danger of an Axis victory and aid in maintaining other nations to fight the Axis while America launched her own defense program. As a result, when war did come, America, although not completely ready by any means, was better prepared than in 1939, and she had allies to assist her in the war against the Axis.

The Social Studies Test of the College Entrance Examination Board

Henry Chauncey

BEFORE I discuss the Social Studies Test itself, I would like to review briefly the way in which the College Board operates. The College Board is an association of colleges which have worked together for about forty years in the preparation, administration, scoring, and reporting of examinations used in selecting students for admission. The Board works largely through committees, though all matters are subject to the approval of the full membership of the Board at its semi-annual meetings.

There is a Committee on Examination Subjects and Requirements which proposes the slate of examinations and defines what each is to cover. For each examination there is a committee of examiners, usually composed of one public-school teacher, one private-school teacher, and two or three college teachers. The examiners consider in detail just what the examination should cover and prepare the examination along those lines.

The Social Studies Test is not frozen as to either type of questions or content. It has been considered by those who have had the responsibility for preparing it as in an experimental, developmental stage. Suggestions for its improve-

In 1937 the College Entrance Examination Board introduced a Social Studies Test as one of a series of achievement tests which were used first for scholarship purposes and later for admission. Since the unit examinations in the different branches of history were discontinued at the beginning of the war, the Social Studies Test is the only test now offered in the field of history. This paper, describing the purpose, nature, and content of the Social Studies Test, and analyzing its results, was presented on March 11, 1944, at a meeting of the New England Association of Social Studies Teachers. The author, who is Assistant to the Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences at Harvard, is a member of the committee of examiners which prepares the Social Studies Test.

ment will be welcomed. If there are groups or individuals who feel that the examination is not what it should be, changes can be brought about by the usual democratic processes.

The Social Studies Test, like all other Board examinations, belongs to the member institutions. It should be what they want. It should not be the product of a minority group with "advanced" ideas who are trying to put across a new program. The majority should feel that it is both an appropriate and an effective examination.

PURPOSE OF THE TEST

NOW the primary purpose of the Social Studies Test is to assist the admissions offices of the member colleges in selecting students. It should provide valid evidence regarding a student's ability and achievement. And in so doing it should be as fair as possible to students with all types of educational background. Scores on the test should be related to future success in college work as a whole and in courses in the field of social studies in particular. If a test satisfactorily fulfills this function, it meets the most important requirement.

But there is another purpose, a negative purpose, which is also important and with which the member institutions and the examining committee are concerned. The examination should not have a bad effect on teaching in the secondary schools. If the consensus of opinion of a group such as this association of teachers is that a certain type or types of programs, courses, and methods of teaching are desirable, and if the test tends to encourage other programs or methods, its deleterious effects would outweigh whatever merits it might have from a selection point of view.

Such is the policy of the College Board regarding its examinations. Such is the framework within which the Social Studies Test has been prepared. While the primary object was to devise an instrument that would measure ability and

achievement fairly for all candidates, an effort was also made to have it sufficiently general so that no particular program of study would be a prerequisite to achieving a high score.

NATURE OF THE TEST

LET us now turn to the Social Studies Test itself. In the first place, what does the title "Social Studies Test" signify? The name, I am afraid, is misleading. To some it undoubtedly carries the connotation of sociology, community civics, economics, and current events, in contradistinction to history. This is unfortunate as the test actually covers several fields of history. The purpose of the title was to broaden the possible scope of the test and to make clear that the test was not intended to measure achievement in any limited area. The official description of the test in the Bulletin that is sent to all candidates reads as follows:

"Social Studies, drawing extensively from material associated with United States History: A test of (a) knowledge in the field of social studies gained through such courses as United States History, other courses in history, Problems of Democracy, Economics, etc., and also through general reading; (b) the ability to read understandingly from material in the social studies presented to the candidates in the test itself. Candidates who have studied only formal history courses in school, but who have never taken courses entitled Social Studies, need not feel that they are at a disadvantage in this test."

You will notice that there are two general types of questions, those requiring factual knowledge and an understanding of concepts, principles, and events, and those in which the information needed to answer the question is given in the test itself. The latter type is intended to measure a student's ability to handle historical and other social studies material as that ability has been developed through his work in secondary school. The proportion of this type of question varies from year to year but generally runs somewhere between 30 and 50 per cent of the test.

Of the former type, that is, the more factual questions, the major part of the subject matter has been taken from American history because it is the one field which virtually all students have studied. While there is comparatively little in the test that might not reasonably be called history, the committee feels free to include anything in the social studies field which a secondary-school student might have had an oppor-

tunity to learn. I might add that there is a conscious effort to have the test vary—within limits—from year to year so that it will not be possible for a student to cram for it.

GENERAL FUNCTION OF THE TEST

WHAT is the philosophy behind this type of test? It can perhaps best be explained by using a simile and comparing the Social Studies Test with the former American history examination. From the Social Studies Test one gets a large number of candid-camera shots of the individual, 150 or more, while from the former American history examination one got six or eight posed photographs. The Social Studies Test samples all that a student has learned throughout his schooling and in his outside reading in the social studies. It is a measure of cumulative achievement and growth. It is definitely not a measure of accomplishment in any one particular course.

What is the reason for having a social studies test which is broad in scope rather than a test of American history alone, or several separate tests in various fields of history? There are two reasons. The first is to provide a test that is as fair as possible to all students. If the test were based on a particular restricted syllabus, students from schools which send many boys and girls to Board colleges would be more appropriately prepared than would students from schools which send so few of their pupils to Board colleges that no effort would be made to adjust the course of study to the Board requirements.

In the second place there has been criticism in the past that the Board examinations have limited the type and content of courses that are taught in school. There was no chance for variation. The examination dictated the course. Because of the general nature of the present examination and because it is not a measure of achievement in a one-year course, schools can feel free to work out their curriculum in the social studies without fear of the effect on the results of the College Board examinations. Each school can develop the courses which are most suitable in its particular situation.

SCORES AND COLLEGE ADMISSION

THE amount of work a student has had in the social studies and whether or not he has had American history will, of course, affect his score, but these factors will be taken into account in interpreting the student's score. At Harvard we regularly note beside a student's

score the number of years of study he has had in the field of social studies and whether or not he has had American history. The problem is exactly the same as in evaluating a student's score in French or Latin. One must know the number of years the student has studied the language in order to make a judgment regarding the quality of his work and his promise for future study in the field. I am sure that the schools can count on the colleges to interpret intelligently the Social Studies Test scores.

Furthermore, the part that the Social Studies Test score, or the score on any one test, plays in admission is not as critical as was the case under the admission procedures that were in vogue ten or twenty years ago, or even just before the war. In the old days a candidate took a number of examinations and he had to "pass" them all to be admitted. At the present time the concept of "passing" or "failing" has pretty much been dropped. Instead, a student's record is considered as a whole. His school grades, the recommendations of his headmaster and teachers, and a personal interview, as well as the examination scores, enter into the comprehensive estimate on which the decision to admit or not to admit is based. If a student who takes the Social Studies Test has had only one year of history in school, not only is that fact taken into account in interpreting his score, but there is also the likelihood that having taken little history he will have taken more work in languages or mathematics and will make correspondingly higher scores in those tests. Variations in amount of preparation and in scores on particular tests tend to "average out" for students of equivalent ability.

The philosophy of admission, therefore, like the philosophy behind the Social Studies Test, is to get an album of candid-camera shots. If the individual does not appear in too good a light in some of them he may appear more promising in others. In any case the impression gained is probably more realistic than that given by a few posed photographs.

A ONE-HOUR TEST

IN CONSIDERING whether or not the Social Studies Test is a suitable test, or whether some other test might be more desirable or do a better job, you will ask if there are any limitations or restrictions under which the examiners have to operate.

There is one important restriction. The test must be of only one hour's length. The reason for this is that the entire battery must take only

one day. In some parts of the country, students have to travel a considerable distance to get to an examination center and they cannot be expected to stay there a week or even several days. The cost would be more than many of the scholarship candidates, for instance, could afford. To require such students to take a series of tests over a period of days would be tantamount to excluding them from consideration.

One may ask, "Why not give such students a one-day battery but have a longer series for those who would not be inconvenienced?" This is a possibility which will no doubt be considered, but it has the serious disadvantage of setting up two or more admission procedures which would be lacking in comparability. While some of the schools might like this plan it is not at all certain that the boys and girls would! The crux, it seems to me, would be whether selection for admission would be improved. Would the advantage of having longer examinations outweigh the lack of comparability and the administrative difficulties? I personally doubt if the longer examinations would materially improve selection.

PREDICTION OF SUCCESS IN COLLEGE

THAT brings us to the question, "How has the test worked out?" As I mentioned earlier, the primary purpose is to give an indication of how students will do in college. Since the Social Studies Test is one of several tests which are used to predict success in college work in general, we are interested in how scores on the Social Studies Test correlate with freshman grade averages. More particularly, we are interested in how the scores correlate with grades in social studies courses in college.

We have made such studies over a period of several years at Harvard, and in these studies we have used the Scholastic Aptitude Test scores as a basis of comparison. The Scholastic Aptitude Test is generally considered to be about as good a single index of future success in college as there is.

The Social Studies Test, based on studies of over 650 students, has as high a correlation with freshman grade average as the Scholastic Aptitude Test. With grades in History I and Government I, based on 373 cases, the Social Studies Test has a significantly higher correlation. We have made similar studies of the Social Studies pre-tests which were tried out at Harvard, with the same results except that in predicting freshman grades the Social Studies Test was superior to the Scholastic Aptitude Test. The pre-tests

were two hours in length, a fact which probably accounts for this difference. It should be added that the Scholastic Aptitude Test with which the Social Studies Test was being compared was a two-hour test.

You may ask, "Is the test equally predictive for students from public and private schools?" Studies similar to those I have just mentioned indicate that the test works as well for students from public schools as for students from private schools. In fact, the correlation with freshman grades is identical. With History I, the correlation for the public-school students was somewhat higher. With Government I, the correlations were the same. In other words, the test seems to be equally useful for students with different educational backgrounds.

How does the Social Studies Test compare with the former American history essay examination in predicting success in History I, Government I, and Economics A in college? For a number of years both tests were offered, and so we have an opportunity to see whether there has been any great loss by substituting the one-hour Social Studies Test for the three-hour American history examination. The results show that the American history examination was slightly superior in predicting success in History I. The Social Studies Test had a somewhat larger margin of superiority in predicting success in Government I. The two tests were equally good in predicting grades in Economics A. The conclusion that the work of the admission offices has not been impaired by substituting the Social Studies Test for the American history examination seems justified.

ACHIEVEMENT VS. APTITUDE

FOR the purpose of predicting success in college the Social Studies Test may do a satisfactory job, but does it really measure achievement in the field of social studies or is it perhaps merely another type of Scholastic Aptitude Test? To answer this question we have made a study at Harvard. As I mentioned earlier, we noted beside each student's score on the Social Studies Test the number of years of study (one, two, three, or four years) and whether or not he had had American history. From this information we grouped students according to amount of study in the field, whether or not they had had American history, and whether or not they came from public or private schools. Thus we had sixteen groups. One group, for example, consisted of

public-school students having two years of social studies including American history; in another group were private-school students having three years of social studies without American history. For each group we then calculated the average score on the Social Studies Test and, as a control, the average score on the Scholastic Aptitude Test.

The results of this study permit the following conclusions:

(1) The amount of study which a student has had in the field of social studies is an important element in his score. The test therefore can reasonably be considered a measure of achievement in the social studies.

(2) Among the private-school students, those who have had American history do somewhat better (average about 40 points higher) than those who have not studied American history. Surprisingly, and for reasons about which I can only hazard some rather feeble guesses, public-school students who have taken American history do not do markedly better than those with equivalent study in other fields. Possibly many students have taken American history in a course by another name. Perhaps students remember more about American history from the courses taken in grammar school than we usually give them credit for remembering. It may be that students who were allowed to omit formal classroom work in American history were required to study the subject independently. Some schools whose teaching in the field of history is particularly strong may allow an option and not require American history.

Whatever the cause, the fact remains that there is more of American history in the Social Studies Test than there is of other fields of history. One would expect, therefore, that students who have not studied American history in a course by that name, or in some other course or independently, would be at a disadvantage compared with students who have had American history. The test is not inappropriate for students whose secondary-school program is without a course in American history, but some allowance should be made in interpreting the scores of such students.

(3) Relative to their ability as indicated by the Scholastic Aptitude Test scores and relative to amount of preparation, public- and private-school students do about equally well on the Social Studies Test.

(4) The correlation with freshman grades is about equally satisfactory for each of these

groups when taken by itself. What variations there are in the correlation coefficients can be accounted for by chance. There is no general trend. In other words, the Social Studies Test is suitable for students with different amounts of training so long as the results are interpreted in the light of the amount of preparation. Even without such interpretation, Social Studies Test scores, as we have seen, correlate as highly with freshman grades as the Scholastic Aptitude Test. If the amount of study is taken into account the test becomes a still better predictor of success in college.

All in all, the evidence from this study¹ points to the fact that the Social Studies Test is a measure of ability and past achievement in the field of social studies, and that it is also a good index of future achievement in college.

APPROVAL OF SUBJECT MATTER

FOR those who are skeptical of statistical studies and are not convinced by evidence of that nature, I wish we might show you the tests themselves. We firmly believe that the content of achievement tests should have the approval of subject-matter specialists. In addition to performing satisfactorily from a technical point of view, the subject matter and the qualities tested should appear on careful inspection to be appropriate. School and college teachers should feel that the Social Studies Test is a fair and reasonable measure of at least some of the objectives of teaching in that field.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to distribute

¹ A somewhat similar study based on students from a group of girls' schools is being made at the present time.

copies of the test. To do so would defeat one of the main purposes of the test—to free teachers from the necessity, or even the possibility, of teaching for the examination. If a sample copy of the test were released, there would inevitably be a tendency for each school to modify its offerings to fit the content of the sample test. The success of such changes in improving students' scores would be doubtful because of the variation in the test from year to year, but the incentive to change and to teach for the test would certainly result from the circulation of a sample test. In this instance we have to ask you to take on faith the assurance of the members of the Social Studies Committee, a number of whom belong to this association, that the test does seem to be a fair and reasonable measure of at least some of the objectives of teaching in history and the other social studies.

AS I am sure you all realize, it is not an easy task to develop a test that is a fair measure of achievement for students whose preparation is so diverse. The committee charged with the preparation of the Social Studies Test has given a great deal of thought to all aspects of the problem and has taken infinite pains in the preparation of each form of the test. The committee does not feel, by any means, that the present Social Studies Test is the last word. Quite the contrary, it is still in an early stage of development. But there seems to be some basis for the belief that a reasonably good start has been made. In the future improvement of the test, I should like to emphasize again that the committee will welcome any comments or suggestions you may care to make.

The Election—a Plan for Citizenship Education

Lawrence E. Turner and Cornelius H. Siemens

NOVEMBER 7, 1944 is election day in the United States. It is predicted that on this third wartime election day a record number of voters will go to the polls to register their choice concerning public officials and complex domestic and international issues of the time.

In one state—Georgia—among those going to the polls will be thousands of young men and women who were recently enfranchised by the amendment to its Constitution lowering the voting age from twenty-one to eighteen. For the first time in our history youths who have only lately graduated from our secondary schools will participate in an election of national scope and deep significance. Resolutions calling for similar lowering of the voting age have been introduced into the legislatures of thirty-one other states, and into both houses of Congress! An increasing number of people are contending that if eighteen is an appropriate age for induction into the armed services of the nation, it is also an appropriate age for induction into the electorate of the nation.

Election day will be regarded with varying degrees of significance in the secondary schools of the nation. In some it will be an important "current event." In others it will mean merely the necessity of memorizing a new list of national, state, and local officials. To some teachers it will be another opportunity to exercise their right of voting. To some it will provide the opportunity of studying *about* the election machinery and procedure. And sadly enough in some few

schools, the day will have no special significance.

However, if schools are to meet the challenge of preparing youth for intelligent participation as citizens in the American democracy, election day must mean the opportunity for the students to experience democracy in action by participating realistically in the election procedure. An important listing of the objectives of social studies gives—among others—the following as goals to be achieved: "participation in civic affairs," "information as a basis for participation," "knowledge of civic rights, duties, and responsibilities," and "knowledge of social, economic, and political principles."¹ It is the thesis of this discussion that schools should take advantage of the opportunity presented by an election to progress toward the realization of these socio-political goals. The experience of sponsoring eight regular election projects in two different states in five different high schools has led to the development of the principles and techniques here presented. It is hoped that this discussion of the principles, procedures, and achievable outcomes, together with the suggested work-schedule for completing the project, may stimulate teachers throughout the nation to utilize this biennial opportunity for practical training in this fundamental obligation of citizenship.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

THE FOLLOWING are some of the general principles which should govern the organization and conduct of student elections.

1. *The student election should simulate as nearly as possible every detail of the regular election.* Students participating in the election will gain infinitely more—and they will undertake their responsibilities more seriously—if this principle is followed. It should apply to every phase of the project. The registration should be done

The coming election presents not only a stimulus to the study of current events but an opportunity for an all-school activity involving the use of election procedures. The authors are respectively a graduate student at the University of California, who was formerly a social studies teacher and school administrator, and a professor in the School of Education at the University of California.

¹ R. E. Swindler, "Objectives in the Social Studies," in *Instruction in the Social Studies*, Bulletin No. 17, in the National Survey of Secondary Education, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, 1933, p. 7.

in a manner similar to that prescribed by law in the state where the school is located. The management of the polls should be the responsibility of student "election boards" of the size prescribed by law. Student "officials" should subscribe essentially to the regular oaths prescribed in the election code. The election should be held on election day—notwithstanding external pressure to hold the voting prior to that day for purposes of prediction.

2. *There should be a sponsoring teacher or group of teachers who co-ordinate the activities of the project.* The duties of this group are general in nature, and they must remain in the background. The duties which, in the regular election, are assumed by the Board of Supervisors, or the Board of County or Election Commissioners, can be assumed by this sponsoring group. One of the group may become the "County Clerk," or other county or township official whose duties involve indirect management of the election proceedings.

3. *The work of actually supervising the registration of voters and the election itself should be done by the students.* Students should serve as "Registrars," and as the officers of the "Election Boards"; students should set up the polls; students should count the ballots and make the necessary reports to the "Clerk."

4. *Preparation for the project must begin well in advance of election day.* Preparation by the sponsoring teachers includes a general knowledge of the election code,² arranging with the school administration for co-operation with the project, and securing whatever supplies may be obtained from the regular county or township officials. It must also include the provision for special training for those students who are to serve as "Registrars" or other "election officials." Only careful preparation and advice from public officials can prevent confusion.

5. *Teacher and school activities must be conducted impartially in order to assist the students in making their own discriminating choices.* This does not imply that controversial issues should be avoided; on the contrary, it means that they should be studied. The students should arrive at their own conclusions as a result of their own thought processes, after having opportunity to know all of the relevant facts pertaining to these issues. This is the type of "problem-solving" that

must carry over into their participation in subsequent elections.

A TIME SCHEDULE³

IT MUST be recognized that each school in which an election project is carried out will have its own specific problems; each state has different legal provisions; large schools will approach the experience in a different manner from small schools; actual supplies and facsimile supplies will differ in proportion in the various communities. The time schedule here presented is assumed to be suggestive only. It sets out the general parts of the project; the details must of necessity be supplied in every school undertaking the project.

1. *Arrange with the school administrator for co-operation with the project.* It is advisable to secure official school approval before the opening of school, but in no case should it be delayed beyond the close of the first school week.

2. *Complete the master plan and organization as soon as official permission is secured, but not later than the second school week.*

3. *Meet with the regular county or township official to provide for election supplies.* The amount and type of supplies will vary in different places. In every community sample ballots can be secured by arranging for them early. In some states the county or township officials are able to provide supplies identical with those used in the regular election. One election official gave the school a packet identical to that supplied the regular polling places. It contained the following items which might serve as a suggested check list to teachers undertaking the project:

- 2 Tally Lists
- 1 Roster of Voters
- 1 Challenge List
- 2 Copies of "Result of Vote"
- 1 Assisted Voters' List
- 12 Instruction Cards
- 1 Copy of the Election Code
- 25 Assisted Voters' Affidavits
- 1 Envelope No. 1
- 1 Envelope No. 2
- 1 Envelope No. 3 for Register
- 1 Envelope No. 4 for semi-official returns
- 1 Envelope No. 5 for spoiled ballots
- 1 Envelope No. 6 for voted ballots

³ The war emergency has delayed the publication of this article. Those who carry out the suggestion for an election project for 1944 will need to compress the first four steps of the Time Schedule into a very short period. The use of this expedient is suggested for this year, but the longer period as outlined in the article is recommended henceforth.

² Copies of the code, or of digests of the code are usually available in the office of the county or township official who supervises elections; or they may be procured from a state officer—usually the Secretary of State.

- 12 Sheets of writing paper
- 5 indelible lead pencils
- 5 solid rubber stamps "X"
- 5 rubber stamp ink pads
- 1 stick of sealing wax
- 1 large needle
- 1 package of twine
- 1 package of tacks for posting "Result of Votes"
- 5 blotters for voting booths
- 400 sample ballots
- 400 pamphlets presenting arguments for and against the initiative and referendum propositions
- 5 Digests of the Election Laws

Some states provide for careful guarding of election supplies to prevent their fraudulent reproduction. However, permission is usually granted to make reasonable facsimiles of these documents on the mimeograph or gelatin duplicator, and commercial teachers usually welcome such projects for their classes.

4. *Complete appointment and training of "Registrars" or other registration officials*, as soon as possible, but not later than September 15. Appointments should be made in a manner similar to that provided in the election laws of the state. Many states permit any interested elector to apply for the positions, and appointments are made from the lists of applicants. A similar technique can be used in the school election. This provides an opportunity to assign interested, but otherwise reticent, students a responsibility. Appointees should subscribe to the regular oath (or a modification of it) in becoming officials. "Registrars" should understand the meaning of the registration oath and know how to administer it. The number of registrars will vary according to the number of electors and the particular system of registration employed. Some schools utilize the social studies classes for this purpose; some use "advisories" or home rooms. A realistic system is to divide the school into "precincts," and to provide for "Registration Offices" for each precinct. Since, in most instances, student "Registrars'" time is limited, it is recommended that not more than two hundred or two hundred and fifty students constitute a precinct for registration purposes.

5. *Register voters according to law, as nearly as possible.* There is no uniformity in the provision for registration in the several states. The Constitution of Arkansas prohibits registration; the laws of Texas do not provide the means for registration; several states—notably Illinois and Missouri—have multiple systems of registration depending upon the type of community. The length of the registration period also varies between the states: in North Dakota and New

Hampshire it is one day only, which is the shortest period; in a majority of the states it is continuous to the closing date. There is a considerable variation in the dates for closing registration: the earliest closing date is six months prior to the election in Georgia; the latest is at poll-closing time in Iowa.⁴ The sponsoring committee must adjust the period of registration to meet the need of the school, but it should be emphasized to the students that the adjustment is made as an expedient—not the legal provision.

The "voters" should be trained in the meaning of registration. Much of the verbiage of electors' oaths is formal and difficult to understand, and every "voter" should have the opportunity to develop an understanding of the oath. The following Elector's Oath⁵ from Idaho illustrates the need for a careful analysis:

I do swear (or affirm) that I am a citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years, or will be on the — day of —, A.D., 194—; that I have (or will have) actually resided in this State for six months, and in this County for thirty days next preceding the next ensuing elections; that I have never been convicted of treason, felony, embezzlement of public funds, bartering or selling or offering to barter or sell my vote, or purchasing or offering to purchase the vote of another, or other infamous crime, without thereafter being restored to the rights of citizenship; that I am not now registered and entitled to vote, at any other place in this State; that I do regard the Constitution of the United States and the laws thereof, and the Constitution of this State and laws thereof, as interpreted by the courts, as the supreme law of the land, so help me God.

The "voters" should understand the seriousness of subscribing to an oath, and they should realize that swearing to a lie is perjury which carries a penalty. The age and residence qualification may need adjustment to fit the situation to avoid "perjury" by the "registrants." The "voters" must also understand that in order to vote, they must first register. However, outside of maintaining well-advertised registration stations during the legal period, registration should be a natural result of interest and not a matter of compulsion. Usually a few students forget to register with the result that they cannot vote on election day.

6. *Secure co-operation of custodians and shop departments in constructing polling places, as early as possible.* The construction of polling places involves practically no expense, since they can be made with such commonplace items as tables, small ropes, screens, or light railings.

⁴ Cf. John B. Johnson and Irving J. Lewis, *Registration for Voting in the United States*. Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1941.

⁵ See *Idaho Code Annotated*, 33-401, 402.

However, the persons responsible for these details should be given ample time to complete this essential part of the preparation.

7. *Appoint "election officials" and train them in their duties.* The training should be completed by November 6. In some schools the same set of "officials" may serve during the entire day; in others, in order to provide an opportunity for an experience for more students, a different set of "officials" may serve each school period. All "officials" should subscribe to the regular oath (or a modification of it) for such officers.

8. *Notify the "Registered Voters" in a manner similar to that prescribed by law.* Many states send individual identification cards to the voters. In the school election, these notices can serve first, as identification at the "polls," and second, as permits to leave class or other activities on election day. The "election officials" can collect these notices, if necessary, to prevent their being used as a means of getting out of class more than once!

9. *Conduct pre-election activities, one to three weeks prior to election day.* These activities may include the following: *Bulletin Boards* for the display of all kinds of election posters and pamphlets; *publication* of editorials, cartoons, and news items in the school newspaper; *discussions in class* of the issues and candidates; *examination and study of a sample ballot*, showing the correct way to mark it; *student-body assembly* at which student speakers present succinct statements in support of or against candidates or propositions. All necessary announcements for the successful conduct of the election can be made at this assembly.

10. *Set up polls, provide supplies, and complete all preparations by November 6.*

11. *Election day, November 7, 1944.* The day will be taken up with voting, counting the ballots, and certifying the returns.

12. *Report the results* in city and school newspapers on November 8. In many communities a reporter will visit the actual voting, if newspapers are informed of the project before election day.

ATTAINABLE OUTCOMES

IT IS probably not possible to measure objectively the attitudes, appreciations, interests,

and skills achieved through the election-day project. However, a few will become obvious especially to the participants.

1. Develop an appreciation of the legal aspects and the mechanics of voting. The students who serve as school "election officials" may later serve the community in similar capacities. Many of the "voters" in school elections have been observed to manifest considerable knowledge of the fundamental requisites of voting.

2. Clarify the meaning and concept of words used in connection with elections: an incomplete list would include such words as oath, perjury, registration, referendum, initiative, canvass, nomination, short ballot, long ballot, Australian ballot, platform, and "plank."

3. Develop interest in candidates and issues—local as well as national. This results partially from the student's desire to know if his choice of candidates were elected.

4. Develop an appreciation of the "privilege, duty, and responsibility" of voting.

5. Provide an opportunity for students to be exposed to relevant arguments of controversial issues, and for practice in discriminating among them.

6. Initiate and develop interest in the affairs of government and of governmental officials.

7. Provide an opportunity for an experience in the conduct of elections which has been observed to carry over into their student body, class, and club affairs.

8. Provide an opportunity for the students to build confidence in their ability to carry out civic responsibilities successfully.

9. Influence parents through the students to participate more actively and more accurately in the election activities. County officials have reported that in districts in which election projects were conducted, fewer ballots were spoiled, and more interest manifested, than in those districts not sponsoring an election activity.

Election day—a day for each adult to meet the challenge of his responsibility of citizenship—but also a day for each teacher to meet the challenge of providing opportunities for the students of today more intelligently to face their responsibilities of tomorrow!

Are We Getting the Best?

George P. Schmidt

RECENTLY a senior who had been preparing to teach the social sciences came to tell me that she had changed her mind about teaching and was now resolved to look for a job in the business world instead. Her reasons, as given to me, were not startlingly new; she raised no problems of which educators are not already aware. Nevertheless, the fact that she raised them suggests that the problems persist. Besides, it was not she alone but others, often good students, who have come at one time or another with similar complaints. Such acquaintance, furthermore, as I have with undergraduate and graduate students of education at this and other universities leads me to suspect that we have here a case that is fairly symptomatic.

The girl in question was a senior in a liberal-arts college and an honors student in history. In her sophomore year she had been permitted by a faculty committee to enroll in the education department as a prospective candidate for teaching. The committee at the time thought her an unusually good prospect. Alert and well-balanced, she has the qualities generally considered desirable in a teacher. I should like to present her reasons for giving up teaching as an objective, somewhat freely paraphrased and supplemented by comments of other students who reported similar changes of heart.

THE CASE AGAINST TEACHING

IN THE course of the last two years (says my senior) my preference for teaching has slowly changed to aversion. The reason, let me say at the outset, is not financial. No prospect of high wages in wartime industry lured me away from the profession. I do not expect to enjoy office work as much. If teaching could be what I hoped it might be, I should prefer it, even at a lower salary, to any office job that I can get. But after two years of preparation and study of its nature

and problems, teaching no longer holds the appeal that it did when I knew less about it. Here is my difficulty. I like history and the social sciences because they have made me more at home in the world and have given me knowledge and ideas about the social order in which we live, its development and its problems. I wish I might share this experience with young people. To get ideas started in the minds of youngsters, to help them know and understand and think critically up to the limit of their capacity—that is my conception of a teacher's function. I should rather do that than anything else I can think of. But how much of this sort of thing does a junior or even a senior high school teacher actually get to do?

As I have come to see it, the principals and supervisors who will direct my teaching will not be so much concerned about my knowledge of the subject as about my familiarity with classroom methods and my fluency in all kinds of teaching techniques. I must have lesson plans and outlines, for the year and for each day. All knowledge apparently comes in units which must in turn be motivated, developed, and concluded according to an approved pattern. A tremendous amount of preparation is required before the actual transmission of knowledge and skill, teaching proper, can begin. And after it ends, there are the tests and the grades and the records and the reports, all to be done in great detail and along standard lines worked out by some expert and demanded by the principal. If so much of my time, in class and out, will be taken up with these little tricks, when will I ever get around to teaching history?

It isn't that I think I could step into a classroom without any preparation and make a success of teaching. I am not that conceited. I fully realize that teachers need professional training as well as doctors and lawyers. But aren't those who plan this training overdoing it? Couldn't there be a little more emphasis on the facts and ideas of the subject to be taught and a little less on the aims and bases, the foundations and objectives, the philosophy, principles, and purposes of education? It seems to me that one could

The author of this challenging criticism is professor of history and chairman of the committee on teacher education at the New Jersey College for Women.

assemble what one needs in a professional way in shorter time with fewer and meatier courses. The meat in education courses is sometimes sliced awfully thin. The unnecessary repetition, so it seems to me, of matter which in itself is interesting and important enough, becomes boring in the long run.

I am not blaming the faculty. My education professors are capable, well established in their field, and quite interesting and helpful. But I have the feeling that they are under compulsion to stretch the material, whether they want to or not. This is necessary, I understand, to meet requirements in terms of points of credit set up by state boards and the like outside the universities. It is too bad, for they are certainly spoiling a good thing.

AND THAT is not all. The life of a teacher is hedged about with restrictions to a degree I never realized. We have principals, superintendents, and teachers, sometimes alumnæ speak to us in class on one aspect or another of the profession. The advice of these experienced educators sums up to about the following: never take a stand or express an opinion on political and social issues; for God's sake keep away from politics; be careful where you live and where you eat, with whom you are seen in public, how you dress and wear your hair, and what you do week-ends.

That kind of negative circumscribed existence doesn't appeal to me. It is not that I want to lead an unconventional life or have a constant round of good times; I am willing to work hard and I believe in upholding community standards. But I do not like to be singled out for special attention. I think I am entitled, as a civilized human being, to some privacy and some right of personal choice. In business, after hours, my life is my own, but in teaching this would seem to be impossible. And this goldfish existence is bound to affect my teaching. How can you be normal and natural in class if you can not be normal and natural outside of class? Some people want you to be an impossible prig with all human qualities squeezed out, and then they wonder why teachers turn into prissy old maids. Taking all these factors into account I have decided not to become a teacher.

SO FAR our senior. In trying to evaluate her criticism one must bear in mind that it is the opinion of one girl who has had the usual undergraduate courses in education but has

never taught a class. It is the voice of inexperience. At the same time it is the honest reaction of a good student to a real situation and, as stated before, I have reason to believe it is not unique. It is presented here not for the purpose of heaping denunciations but because it poses a real problem. I am not interested in reviving or perpetuating the feud between schools of education and schools of liberal arts; there has been enough of that and very little good has come of it. The professors of education whom I know are as intelligent, idealistic, and expert in their field as are the professors of history whom I know. There are exceptions, like the occasional test-and-measurement fanatic who sees life as one grand probability curve and thinks he has found ultimate answers when he has neatly fitted all mankind into its appropriate decile. (I am not speaking here of the proper use of test scores of all kinds, whose value no one would dispute.) For that matter, the fanatic to whom all existence is merely an extension of his own specialty is not unknown in departments of history, or mathematics, or literature, in liberal-arts colleges.

My concern is to make the teaching profession more attractive to some of my good students who have it in them to become good teachers but who are being turned aside by the considerations just described. How can their original interest be kept alive? How can they be saved for the service for which they clearly qualify?

Our senior's complaints come under two heads: the nature of her professional training, and the attitude of the general public toward teachers. Of the first complaint educators have long been aware. Plans for synthesis of subject matter and method, and for readjustment of the time to be allotted to each, are nothing new. The aims and objectives of teacher-training institutions, as announced in their catalogs, are admirable. Graduate schools, teachers colleges, and university schools of education have launched various plans designed to remedy matters. But how much headway are they making?

CRITICISMS OF EDUCATION COURSES

STUDENTS apparently still feel that their courses are padded. The wiser ones among them do not blame their professors, for they realize that the latter, however sound their personal philosophy of education, are hampered by prescribed programs and are not free agents. For the law requires, and state departments of education insist, that a certain number and certain kinds of courses be offered, so that students may

garner the requisite credit points for a teaching certificate. With the purpose of such legislation there can be no quarrel. Of course we want trained teachers and we want to keep poor material out of the profession. *But are we keeping the good material in?* Are not our better students justified in their objections to what they consider elaboration of the obvious or wasteful repetition under new course titles?

Without wishing to be dogmatic, since my information is incomplete, I should like to suggest that perhaps we have gone too far in one direction by an overemphasis on classroom procedures and testing techniques with a consequent inadequate attention to subject matter. What was designed as a means to an end is about to become an end in itself. Mechanism and procedure threaten to choke off the material. So much stage-setting is required before the play can begin and so much mopping-up afterward that too little time remains for the play itself. And yet—the play's the thing. In this connection I am reminded of another of our graduates, a mathematics major. She did unusually well in her practice teaching, and when her critic teacher commended her and suggested that she must have had an excellent course in methods, the girl replied, "I had an excellent course in mathematics."

DEFENSE OF EDUCATION COURSES

A CONTENTION of this kind usually meets with two stock retorts. The high school population is no longer as selective as it once was, we are told, and furthermore we teach human beings, not subject matter. True, of course. I am certainly not making a plea here for the pedant who knows all there is to know about his subject and nothing at all about adolescent boys and girls. Yet the retort seems inadequate.

We teach human beings, yes; but what do we teach them? To know, to understand, to appreciate, to do—*something*. That something, whether it be poetry or typing or cooking or history, is the subject matter which the high school teacher manipulates. By means of his subject he contributes, along with the other teachers, to that sum total of understanding, skills, and ideals which, when properly fused, we call intelligent adjustment to life, or education. The more the teacher knows about his subject, the broader and deeper his understanding of its implications and its relation to other subjects, the better the quality of his teaching. No, he is not to make specialists of his pupils. They must receive the material watered down to dosages which they can tolerate. But an intelligent job of watering-

down requires considerable knowledge. To know what to select, what to eliminate, how to evaluate, the teacher must be master of his subject. If he has to spend too much time on the red tape of methods and tests he cannot grow in knowledge and wisdom as he should. Neither will he stimulate his pupils as he should. The teachers who have influenced our lives and whom we like to remember may or may not have operated with unit plans and group reports; they may or may not have given us objective tests; but they did confront us with ideas, challenged with us provocative ideas, and kindled our imagination with sparks from their own.

TEACHING IN SOCIETY

THE OTHER complaint voiced by our senior is one about which educators alone, I fear, can not do much. It is a matter rather for community action. The community must permit its teachers to remain human beings. The facts offered here have been aired before and are well known. Forcing live and ardent young men and women to calcify into impersonal machines is a crime against pupils and teachers alike, a crime of which more than one American community has been guilty. Not intentionally, for the motives of school boards in setting up these rigid patterns of behavior are often worthy and certainly understandable. After all, the boards reflect public opinion and the public is rightfully concerned about the welfare and good name of its schools. Unfortunately the straight and narrow path which many a community lays out for its teachers does not lead to life, but to dry rot. How the public which supports the schools can be made to see this I am not prepared to say.

AND NOW to come back to her once more. Here is a college senior of solid integrity who wanted to teach and who ought to teach. She is keen and intelligent without being either a dreary grind or a destructive heckler. She is a leader who has held some of the highest student offices, both appointive and elective. She can manage small groups and conduct large meetings. Along with this she is personally attractive and socially presentable, with many friends both among her classmates and the faculty. Above all, she has the spark. Through her vehicle of the social sciences and with her personality she could arouse and maintain the intelligent interest of high school boys and girls. But she has decided not to teach. Her foretaste of the profession has been unpleasant. Something has gone wrong here. What can be done about it?

Teaching Geography in an Army Air Force College Training Program

W. Seward Salisbury

A PRE-FLIGHT Aviation Student Unit of the Army Air Forces has been stationed at the State College for Teachers since the latter part of March, 1943. This is one of approximately 150 such units in various colleges throughout the country. These aviation students have formed the pool from which the Air Force has drawn its potential airmen.

These men are divided into quintiles. The complete preflight course extends over a period of five months. Every four weeks a quintile leaves for a classification center and a new quintile arrives. At the classification center the aviation students are classified as pilot, navigator, or bombardier, and proceed as regular aviation cadets to their respective primary, basic, and advanced sequence of schools.

The contract with our institution called for instruction in physics, mathematics, geography, English, civil air regulations, history and Americanism, physical training, and health and medical aid. The general content was prescribed by syllabi provided by the Air Forces and various directives which would, from time to time, elaborate or redefine the syllabi. The geography directive called for 60 class hours of instruction plus at least one additional period per week of supervised study and remedial instruction. The methods and techniques of instruction were left to the discretion of the institution and its faculty.

The Air Force directive emphasized that we were to instruct our aviation students in the light of their educational background. We were to begin with what they knew, and proceed as rapidly as each group could master the content.

If we are to teach "air-age geography" what technical aspects are likely to require attention? This article, by the chairman of the social studies department of the State Teachers College at Oswego, New York, offers some clues to the answer as it describes one very practical effort to meet wartime needs.

Some of the earlier quintiles had an average educational experience equivalent to three years of higher education. Some of the later quintiles, including many eighteen-year olds, did not even average high school graduation.

MAPS AND MAP PROJECTIONS

THE GEOGRAPHY syllabus included many items of content and units of study that professional geographers have long been emphasizing. However, we found very few aviation students who had had any training in technical geography. This was true even among the aviation students who had had several semesters of college. The syllabus sought to emphasize the content which would provide the aviation student with a basic foundation for the better understanding of a technical course in navigation and meteorology which he would be required to master in the basic and advanced phases of his flight training.

All directives required that not less than one third of the class activity should deal, directly or indirectly, with maps and map interpretation and their significance. We continued to modify our course of study so that not only one third but more nearly one half of the class activity was given over to map interpretation.

Our first unit dealt with earth and sun relations: the earth in the universe, the relation of the earth to the sun, the size and shape of the earth, its motions, and its seasons. We found a globe indispensable. A thorough understanding of the globe grid¹ is a condition precedent to map literacy. Reference to the globe as doubt or misinterpretation of a map or chart arose usually cleared the difficulty. Latitude and longitude, the Great Circle² concept, measurement in de-

¹ The globe grid is the arrangement of the lines of longitude and the parallels of latitude on the globe as they appear upon the surface of the earth.

² A Great Circle is a circle on the surface of the earth, the plane of which passes through the center of the earth. The shortest distance between two places on the face of the earth is always the smaller arc of some great circle.

degrees and the nautical mile, and the relation of the nautical to the statute mile are closely related and were studied in sequence. We organized a number of drill exercises in latitude and longitude using Army and Navy chart techniques, such as finding difference in longitude,³ and finding mid-latitude.⁴ A series of exercises for the determination of latitude by means of the position of the sun at noon in relation to the zenith and the point of vertical ray, proved worth-while and effective instructional activities.

Time concepts are always difficult to explain and make clear to some students. The relation of time to longitude, the international date line, sun time, mean time, standard time, time zones, and problems of time, constitute the content of this unit.

A UNIT on map projections followed. At first we tried to study and describe all the major map projections. It soon appeared this required attention to much detail that was irrelevant for the objectives of the course. A later directive suggested that most attention be given to the Mercator projection, the gnomonic, polyconic, and azimuthal-equidistant projections.⁵ These are the projections actually used by the Air Forces. We found that a series of exercises that required transferring a course from a gnomonic projection to a Mercator projection and the reverse was most helpful in pointing out the differences between these projections and in emphasizing their respective advantages and disadvantages.

We were directed to teach map and map interpretation from the point of view of the airman—how maps are used to recognize features on the ground, and conversely, features on the ground and how they are represented on maps. Our aviation students worked problems from the military grid maps, United States Geological Survey maps, and aeronautical-sectional-regional maps of the United States. Students were taught

to read maps by grid co-ordinates and by geographic co-ordinates, how to read and construct map scales and representative fractions, how to read contours, and how to construct contours. Some time was given to conventional signs, such as radio data, peculiar to the aeronautical charts.

In our experience it required about five class periods to teach the azimuth circle,⁶ magnetic declination,⁷ and the other map corrections so that a majority of the class could apply these concepts and techniques. We used a series of problems which required two corrections, since the pilot usually has two corrections to make while operating his plane. The problems were concerned with the various possible relations between magnetic north, true north, and grid north.

The final phase of the unit on map interpretation was some experience in drawing rough maps from memory. This activity was included at the direct request of the Air Forces. Apparently enough fliers crash or are otherwise marooned at out-of-the-way places to make this ability of more than passing value.

WEATHER

THROUGHOUT the year the Air Forces have asked us to put an increasing emphasis upon climatology. We were cautioned against an academic presentation, but were requested to stress "weather" and its significance to the pilot. In our course we begin by reviewing such physical concepts as absolute and relative humidity, dew point, and insolation, which the students have already studied in their physics course. Prevailing winds, polar whirls, and regions of calms are discussed and their relation to the revolution and rotation of the earth demonstrated. We pass then to an analysis of world air masses, their movements, and classification. The development of fronts through the meeting of warm and cold air masses follows logically at this point. The relation of high and low pressure areas to fronts and to local topographic conditions is considered. Topographic and other local features are studied primarily for the conditioning effect they have on the air overhead, through which the pilot must fly.

We have used several sets of weather maps

⁶ The observer is presumed to be at the center of an imaginary horizon circle. This circle is divided into 360 degrees measured clockwise with north at zero. The azimuth method is the established method of indicating direction on military maps.

⁷ The angle between true north and magnetic north is called the magnetic declination.

³ Difference in longitude of two places is the smaller arc of the equator intercepted between their meridians.

⁴ Mid latitude is the latitude midway between the latitudes of two places. In practical navigation the navigator is constantly required to determine these two values.

⁵ The Mercator projection is a map in which all meridians of longitude appear as vertical straight lines, parallel and equidistant. The gnomonic projection is a map in which the parallels of latitude and the meridians are projected onto a plane tangent to a selected point on the earth's surface. The polyconic projection is a map based on a series of cones tangent to the sphere of the earth at selected parallels of latitude. The azimuthal-equidistant projection is a map which is centered on a definite spot on the earth; and on which the distance to any or all other points on the earth can be accurately measured.

with good results. The student not only learns to interpret the weather symbols, but dew point, pressure gradient, cloud formation, and the like become real and significant when directly related to actual and predicted weather. The variations of temperature on either side of a front, the wind direction and velocities in relation to "highs" and "lows," the speed with which a "high" or a "low" moves across the country, and the prevalence of icing conditions on a map or series of maps are studied from the weather maps. The material is a challenge, and the student knows it is information and skills of which a pilot can never have too much.

REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY

THE ORIGINAL syllabus called for giving out about one third of the course to regional geography, with some attention to geopolitics. We followed this suggestion for several months until we were told to teach first the technical geography—maps, charts, climate—, and devote whatever time was left to regional geography. Following this procedure we found we had only about one tenth of the course time left for regional geography. The regional geography we gave dealt mostly with the Far East. Our attempts to teach geopolitics never seemed very satisfactory. We found ourselves discussing various individual theories about geo-political relationships. No very tangible or worth-while outcomes appeared to reward our efforts.

STAFF RE-EDUCATION

PARTICIPATION in the educational program of the Air Force Unit this past year

has been a fine professional experience. Our geography staff was handed the geography syllabus, and was told to acquire the texts, maps, atlases, and other materials that we believed would be necessary to present the content effectively. It turned out that some of our most expensive teaching aids were of the least value. On the other hand some of the best teaching materials, the weather maps, and the Vultee Manual on map projections, were received without charge. As the year progressed we came to rely more and more on teaching materials organized and developed by various members of our staff.

Our faculty assigned to the geography staff required considerable "retooling." Our staff included only one professional geographer. The other staff members included majors in psychology, education, history, music, and art. None of them had taken courses on the college level in technical geography. However, competence in physics, mathematics, draftsmanship, and art proved the type of foundation from which successful and effective geography teaching could be developed. Throughout the year our "retooled" teachers made many worth-while suggestions and developed several valuable teaching techniques.

Without exception, our staff found teaching the aviation students challenging and stimulating. Aside from contributing to the training of pilots, the geography course of study has added substantially to the general education of the aviation students. The information and skills which they have acquired will make them, we believe, more intelligent and more effective citizens in the post-war world.

Two quite different conceptions are employed in explaining the stupendous conflict in which the nations of the world are engaged. By some the war is held to be but the latest and most violent of the convulsions which periodically rack the international body politic in the maintenance of balance in the strength of the greater nations of the world. In short, the war is but a current manifestation of power politics. Others think of the war in another way. These hold that what we witness is the violent culmination of a prolonged and fundamental transformation of our social order. Whichever of these two views is taken, it is clear enough that the world is undergoing a profound change. There are ample grounds for thinking that this is even more true socially than it is politically. The full significance of the fact that war has become total has not yet been recognized. From now on, peace, too, will have to be total. It is no mere party propaganda to say that the rest of this century will belong to the common man. On every hand we can observe a rising tide of democratic power.

This does not mean that the world is headed toward communism. It does mean, however, that further extensions of effective democratic controls are in prospect. As a result of the tremendous social forces released by the war, the common man is going to have more to say than ever before respecting the type of political state in which he lives, the form of economic system in which he produces and distributes the fruit of his labor, the educational system under which he provides for the instruction of his children, and the social order through which he strives to work out his destiny . . . (Edmund E. Day, Address at Cornell University, June 25, 1944).

Science Contributes to the Social Studies

Hazel Davis

MOST elementary-grade curricula include a unit on some phase of community living. The supply of food is a controlling factor in the development and maintenance of any community. For the next year or two, it seems likely, all the vacant lots and backyards are going to blossom with Victory Gardens—projects in which social studies teachers may properly take an interest. Children will be taught how to plant and care for the different vegetables and how to store and preserve them for winter use. Elementary science would go a step farther and teach the life cycles of the most serious garden pests. For example, the striped cucumber beetle winters in weeds and trash and lays its eggs in the spring in crevices in the ground near the roots and stems of the cucumber plant. In the grub stage this pest sucks the sap of the plant, while in the adult stage it chews the leaves. To cope successfully with this beetle one must start in the fall by burning trash and weeds, and then prepare to attack each stage of insect development. The social and economic value of wartime gardening can obviously be improved by some applied science.

Pupils study different types of communities that have developed as a result of adjusting ways of living to the natural environment. It is hoped that in the course of such study the children will get the idea that man's activities are conditioned by seasonal change. The seasons are the result of sun behavior or the apparent path of the sun through the sky. Sun behavior varies with only one thing, distance from the equator. Science helps here, for in the study of light the children learn that light travels only in straight lines. Unlike sound, light will not turn corners. Then it follows that the amount of heat and light a point of surface area receives depends on

the number of hours each day the sun shines and on the directness or angle of the sun's rays at that distance from the equator.

Most grade teachers hurry over the short paragraph on tides in the geography text and hope the children will not ask questions. If the children have studied the moon, a fascinating subject to most children, they are familiar with what is called "pull of gravity," which holds the moon in its orbit around the earth. The tides are the result of the moon's gravity pull on the liquid surface of the rotating earth.

To most children, the magnetic poles are just names on the map. In science children have many experiences with magnets. They discover that a suspended magnet always comes to rest with the same pole pointing toward the north. They find out also that a needle can be made into a temporary magnet by stroking it with the north pole of a magnet. This "magnet," when mounted on a cork and floated on a dish of water, possesses definite polarity. Thus magnetic poles come to have a definite meaning for the children.

FINALLY, the social studies teacher ought to develop the attitude of tolerance and sympathetic understanding for other peoples of the world, for such an attitude is of paramount importance in establishing and maintaining the kind of world society that all right-minded people want. The elementary-science teacher should seek to encourage open-mindedness. Freedom from prejudice and superstition is an excellent foundation upon which the social studies teacher may build attitudes for world citizenship.

For this reason children can hardly be initiated too soon into the realm of scientific principles, facts, and procedures, since exactly these matters not only make them more "at home" in their environment, but also foster a state of mind that encourages healthful curiosity and interest, and discourages narrowness and intolerance. Science, truly understood, is the servant of our civilization. Experience with some of its basic truths should begin when school begins.

Miss Davis is assistant professor of elementary education at the University of Nebraska.

Notes and News

Twenty-fourth Annual Meeting Cleveland, November 23-25

The Twenty-fourth Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held at the Hotel Statler in Cleveland, November 23-25. The program will open with a reception at 4:00 P.M. on Thursday, November 23. Following the reception there will be a showing of some of the newer materials and devices in the field of audio-visual aids. That evening at 8:00 P.M. a general session will be held on "Moral and Psychological Basis of a Lasting Peace."

Friday, November 24, the program will open at 9:00 A.M. with a number of section meetings dealing with topics of immediate interest to classroom teachers and curriculum planners. At 10:45 A.M. there will be a general session which will open with the presidential address to be followed by a speaker of international prominence on "World Organization for a Lasting Peace."

A series of luncheon meetings will be held on Friday at 12:30 P.M. at which recent studies and publications in the social studies field will be presented and discussed.

Another general session will be held at 2:30 on Friday which will consider "Problems of Economic Welfare in the Post-War World." This will be followed by sectional meetings at 3:30 P.M., which will follow the pattern of the morning sectional meetings.

At 7:00 P.M. the annual banquet of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held. After the banquet there will be a radio program by high school students demonstrating the techniques of the Junior Town Meeting League.

The Saturday program will open with a general session at which a special publication, now in preparation by a National Council committee, will be presented which will chart the entire field of social education in the post-war world. This general session will break up into interest-groups according to grade levels and fields of specialization to discuss the implications of this statement of policy for their particular grade levels or subjects.

At 12:30 P.M. on Saturday a luncheon meeting will be held with a symposium of past presidents of the National Council for the Social Studies

discussing the topic, "Keeping Abreast of Developments in the Social Studies Field."

The climax of the convention will be the general session Saturday afternoon at 2:30 P.M. dealing with intercultural education under the theme of "Broader Realization of Democratic Values." This will deal with problems of race-ethnic, regional, and religious-, and related world unity.

Joint sectional meetings are being held on Friday with the American Political Science Association, the National Council of Geography Teachers, and the American Home Economics Association. There will be an extensive exhibit of textbooks and teaching aids for teachers of the social studies. A complete program will appear in the November issue of *Social Education*.

Sectional Meetings, Friday, November 24

Sectional meetings Friday morning and Friday afternoon will be built around related topics, so that listeners may remain with a single group for both sessions or may move from one to another. Subjects range from topics of such immediate classroom importance as:

- Better Use of Textbooks
- Effective Classroom Use of Visual Aids
- Group Discussion as a Teaching Technique
- Selecting and Organizing State and Local Materials
- Integrating State and Local Materials into the American History Program
- Evaluation in Social Education
- Recent Developments in the Field of Critical Thinking
- Experiences that Develop Social Maturity in the Primary Grades
- Balance between Local Community and Study of Wider Areas (Middle Grades), and
- The Place of the Social Studies in the Curriculum,

to topics dealing with special problems created by the war, such as:

- Lessons from Social Education in the Armed Forces
- Education for Returning Veterans

to topics concerned with social welfare and community problems, such as:

- Out of School Agencies that Promote Social Education
- Work Experience as a Phase of Social Education
- Social Education Considers the Role of Management and Labor
- Home and Family Living, and
- Vitalizing the Teaching of Local Government,

and to special studies of vital areas, such as:

- The Soviet Union and Russian-American Relations

America's Understanding of the Far East
 A Canadian Estimate of Our Understanding of Canada
 A Latin-American Estimate of Our Understanding of Latin America.

Reports will be given on such recent publications and studies as *Citizens for a New World* (the 1943 Yearbook), *Adapting Instruction in the Social Studies to Individual Differences* (the 1944 Yearbook), and the National Council Committee report on Consumer Education.

Sectional Meetings, Saturday, November 25

All members of the Council will recall with pride the publication of *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory* (1942). The Board of Directors felt that the time had come to issue a similar statement on social education in the post-war world. Roy A. Price, of Syracuse University, assumed the task of editing *The Social Studies Look Beyond the Peace*.

The program for Saturday morning is built around this statement. Dr. Price will give a brief résumé to the entire membership, which will afterwards break up into interest-groups covering the whole range of social education: primary grades, middle grades, community civics, American history and geography, world history and geography, contemporary problems, social studies in vocational education, in adult education, in the program of teacher education, and in the rural schools. Each group will hold a panel discussion on how the general statements embodied in the pamphlet can be translated into actual schoolroom practice. This Saturday morning meeting should help teachers chart their way through the changes in social education already looming large above the educational horizon.

Hotel Accommodations

The Hotel Statler in Cleveland will be the headquarters for all convention activities. A number of rooms have been reserved for use by NCSS members attending the meeting. Reservation cards for hotel rooms will be mailed to Council members along with a copy of the program early in November. All reservations should be made directly with the hotel.

NCSS Pittsburgh Meeting

The National Council for the Social Studies held a departmental meeting in connection with the meeting of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association in Pittsburgh on July 4. Allen Y. King of Cleveland reported

on the work of a National Council Committee which is preparing a statement of policy for the social studies in the post-war period, and R. O. Hughes of Pittsburgh chaired a panel on the topic of "When Shall We Teach What?" Discussion from the floor added much to the interest of the program. (R. O. H.)

Indiana Council

On Thursday, October 26, 1944, the Indiana State Council for the Social Studies will hold a luncheon meeting at the Indianapolis Athletic Club in connection with the annual meeting of the Indiana State Teachers Association. Dr. Y. C. Yang, president of Soochow University and former Chinese Consul-General in London, will speak on the subject of "China in the Post-War World."

This year's officers of the Indiana Council for the Social Studies are: Robert LaFollette, Ball State Teachers College, president; Charles Bechtold, Richmond Public Schools, vice-president; Flora Will, Indianapolis Public Schools, secretary; J. Curtis Weigel, Indianapolis Public Schools, treasurer; and R. B. Weaver, Goshen, Ruth Corbin, Morocco, and Alberta Cannon, Vincennes, members of the Executive Council.

(R. M. L.)

Kansas Council

At the April meeting of the Kansas Council for the Social Studies Ruth E. Litchen of Kansas University was selected president for the coming year. Robena Pringle of Topeka was elected to serve as secretary-treasurer.

(R. P.)

Minnesota Council

Mary G. Kelty, first vice-president of the National Council for the Social Studies, is speaking at a number of places in Minnesota, October 2-10, under the auspices of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies. Ella A. Hawkinson, president of the Minnesota Council, is in charge of arranging Miss Kelty's engagements.

The May, 1944, *Bulletin* of the Minnesota Council (Dorothy Merideth, editor) carries an article by Edgar B. Wesley entitled "Dead or Alive?" in which criteria for the evaluation of a social studies teacher are set forth along with a scale by which a social studies teacher may evaluate his own standing. The *Bulletin* also includes a number of book reviews, an account of a local social studies council in action, and a list of some free or inexpensive materials for class-room use.

(E. A. H.)

Missouri

The April issue of the *Missouri Social Studies Bulletin* reviews the work of the American Council on Education's Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects. A general account of the Committee's work is contributed by Howard E. Wilson. Statements on the treatment of inter-American relations in United States history texts, in magazines and pamphlets, in modern problems texts, geography texts, and world history texts are contributed by Edith Howard, Caroline E. E. Hartwig, A. W. Troelstrup, Ethel Mills, and Erwin J. Urch.

New York

The May *Bulletin* of the New York State Council for the Social Studies includes evaluations of the report on *American History in Schools and Colleges*, prepared by a Committee of which Edgar B. Wesley was director. The report is summarized by J. Richard Wilmoth. The critics are Lloyd F. McIntyre, Ralph V. Harlow, Albert B. Corey, Helen M. Gohringer, and Roy A. Price.

The June *Bulletin* is concerned with evaluation and testing in social studies. The contributors are Maurice E. Troyer, Hilda Taba, Horace T. Morse, and Emily B. Smith.

New York City

Officers elected for the coming year by the Association of Teachers of Social Studies and its affiliated groups, the history and economic sections, are as follows:

Peter Lief, Taft High School, president of the Association of Teachers of Social Studies; Milton Belasco, Long Island City High School, secretary, and Henry Berkman, Taft High School, treasurer.

The history section elected Henry Siegel, Girls Commercial High School, president; Samuel Graham, High School of Music and Art, vice-president; and Arthur Becker, Midwood High School, secretary.

The economics section chose Samuel Schneider, Walton High School, as president.

North Carolina Institute

The *Report of the Social Studies Institute* sponsored by the North Carolina Council for the Social Studies and the Institute for Research in Social Science, in co-operation with the University of North Carolina, and held at Chapel Hill, June 12-30, has been issued in 66 mimeo-

graphed pages. The report includes brief statements relating to international relations, American history, labor problems, North Carolina government and history, geography, and school-community relations, together with a section on social studies planning for North Carolina. Appendices include lists of materials relating to aspects of the social studies program.

Terre Haute Council

The Terre Haute Council of Social Studies Teachers held a meeting on April 25. George Blake of Franklin College discussed "Reactions to the Committee Report on the Teaching of American History in Schools and Colleges." This was followed by an appraisal of the same report by Helen Ross of Garfield High School, Terre Haute, Indiana. (E. M. R.)

Chicago Conference

The Fourth Annual Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences in Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges was held at the University of Chicago on July 5, 6, and 7. The general theme was "Problems in the Social Sciences in War and Peace." Sessions were devoted to War and General Education, Institutional Changes and the Peace, History in General Education, The Teacher's Social Values, Problems of World Organization, The Social Sciences and Social Action, Race: A Problem in Market and School, and Western Hemispheric and World Solidarity. The chairman of the committee in charge of the conference and of each of the sessions, was Earl S. Johnson.

American Education Week, 1944

"Education for New Tasks" is the theme for the twenty-fourth annual observance of American Education Week. Education has made and is making an indispensable contribution to the winning of the war. But how can we win the peace? How can we maintain full employment? How can we combat intolerance? How can we conserve and improve our human resources? There are many factors in the solution of these, but universal and adequate education of all the people is the basic ingredient of every sensible prescription for these problems.

The NEA has prepared materials to assist local schools in the observance of American Education Week such as a poster, leaflets, a sticker, a manual, plays, a movie trailer, radio scripts, newspaper advertising mats, and other materials.

Address the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, for an order form and further information.

School and Community

"School and Community: a Bibliography," a 12-page mimeographed bulletin (no. 86) has been issued by the Curriculum Laboratory of George Peabody College, Nashville, at 10 cents a copy. The headings for sections include Community Study, Community Councils, Community Planning, Community School, Community Surveys, Directions for Making Survey, Rural Community Life, School Journeys, Teacher Education, Teaching Procedure, and Use of Community Resources.

Geographic School Bulletins

The National Geographic Society will resume publication of its *Geographic School Bulletins* with the issue of October 2. This is a weekly illustrated periodical presenting material on places, peoples, industries, commodities, and scientific developments of popular interest in the news. The *Bulletins*, each issue containing five brief factual articles and seven illustrations or maps, are published for 30 weeks of the school year. A twenty-five cent subscription fee covers the mailing and handling charges.

Elementary School Material

A *Bibliography on Elementary Education and Related Fields* has just been prepared by the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the NEA. The bibliography of 400 selected references is designed to meet the needs of administrators, teachers, parents, and college instructors who wish to locate the more recent professional books and bulletins on elementary education and related fields. Order from the Department, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington (Mimeographed, 25 pages. 25 cents).

Two bibliographies of books for children are available from the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington. *Children's Books—for Fifty Cents or Less* is a bibliography prepared by Dorothy K. Cadwallader containing a carefully selected list of references arranged topically with a substantial section devoted to the social studies (27 pages. 25 cents). LuVerne C. Walker has prepared a 1943-44 supplement of a *Bibliography of Books for Young Children* (16 pages. 20 cents). Copies of the 1942 version of the *Bibliography of Books for Young Children* (50 cents), and the 1942-43

Supplement (20 cents) are available from the Association.

Intercultural Education

Problems of education for better intercultural relations receive increasing attention in publications for teachers. *Common Ground*, published quarterly by the Common Council for American Unity (222 Fourth Avenue, New York 3; \$2 a year) continues to publish human-interest articles on many aspects of the subject. The Summer, 1944, issue includes articles on ancestry, the Nisei, "Jim Crow in the Classroom," "Fighting Together," and restriction of racial discrimination, among other themes.

American Unity, issued monthly for educators by the Council Against Intolerance in America (17 East 42nd Street, New York 17) deals more specifically with classroom problems.

The *Journal of Negro Education*, published quarterly at Howard University, devotes its Summer Yearbook number to Education for Racial Understanding. A distinguished group of Negro and white contributors deals with Bases of Education for Racial Understanding, Educational Programs for the Improvement of Race Relations, and Next Steps in Education for Racial Understanding.

The *Intercultural Education News*, published by the Bureau for Intercultural Education, 119 West 57th Street, New York 19, reviews general developments and notes new publications relating to intercultural education.

Post-War Problems

Post-War Problems, A Current List of Printed United States Government Publications, January-June, 1944 is an annotated bibliography prepared by Kathrine O. Murra for the General Reference and Bibliography Division of the Library of Congress. This mimeographed bulletin of 114 pages contains a thorough coverage of all publications as designated by the title with careful descriptive annotations. Copies are available free on request to librarians only for library use from the Library of Congress, Washington.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington. Contributors to this issue include R. O. Hughes, Robert M. LaFollette, Robena Pringle, Ella A. Hawkinson, and Ethel M. Ray.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

The War

One of the most disputed government policies arising from the war is the subject of a pamphlet entitled *What About Our Japanese-Americans?* by Carey McWilliams (Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, 10 cents). The author asserts that, of the 19,000 Japanese-Americans who have been relocated in the new homes and jobs, none has been proven disloyal. He describes the "screening" tests which have been used to test their loyalty, and devotes a large part of his space to an account of the government's treatment of these people since Pearl Harbor. Both the good and the bad aspects of our policy are discussed, as well as the danger of racial hatreds after the war.

Know Your Enemy, by T. H. Tetens (Society for the Prevention of World War III, 515 Madison Avenue, New York 22. Free) is unusual and interesting. The Society is dedicated to the task of opposing any attempt to whitewash the German people as distinct from the Nazis. It holds that the Germans as a whole are filled with a master-race obsession, and peace can be secured only by ruthlessly preventing Germany from ever being able to fight again. This pamphlet of over 100 pages, with forewords by Emil Ludwig and Rudolph Fluegge, condemns the Germans out of their own mouths by presenting a collection of excerpts and quotations from German leaders over the past half-century and more. It is wholly one-sided, but it constitutes a powerful attack on the idea that the Germans are fundamentally peaceful, though presently misled.

Unknown Country, Nicholas G. Balint, Ed. (Czechoslovak Government Information Service, 1790 Broadway, New York 19. Free) is a pamphlet issued for the purpose of giving American readers an interesting and useful means of learning about Czechoslovakia. It gives an historical background for Czech politics and a fascinating account of the culture and people of the country. Finally it recounts the story of the German infiltration and conquest. The pamphlet is illustrated and is in a small 3x4-inch format.

Another of our allies is the subject of an excellent pamphlet by Maxwell S. Stewart, entitled *War-Time China* (American Council, Institute

of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th Street, New York 22. 25 cents). The author taught for four years at Yenching University in Peiping. In this pamphlet he analyzes and describes the political and economic conditions behind the fighting lines in China. He discusses the manifold changes which the war has wrought in China's old traditions; the advances of democratic ways; the place of Communism in China; and the many obstacles which exist to progress there. One of the most useful sections is that which clarifies for American readers the complex and important political divisions and groups in Chinese life.

Post-War Problems

Our Job in the Pacific, by Henry A. Wallace (American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th Street, New York 22. 25 cents) is an important contribution to the literature on post-war Asiatic policies. The Vice-President believes that we must take the lead in bringing Japan and the colonial peoples of the Pacific into the orbit of a free Asia. We must so order our foreign-trade policy as to co-operate with Asiatic nations to raise living standards. We can obtain prosperity and security only by guaranteeing these things to other nations. Mr. Wallace believes that an international organization backed by force will be the only way to insure permanent peace in Asia, and that our approach to Asiatic problems should be practical rather than idealistic.

It has long been evident to nearly every one that any satisfactory international policy after the war will have to make use of the community of interests of the English-speaking nations. *Co-operation For What? United States and British Commonwealth*, by F. R. Scott (American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th Street, New York 22. 25 cents) is a pamphlet study of various aspects of this question. The author is professor of civil law at McGill University. He describes by means of charts and text the interrelationships of the many parts of the British Commonwealth, and shows how closely they are bound also into the orbit of American influence. The author points out that a successful program of co-operation would indeed be the

ultimate achievement of the democratic process.

The same general subject of Anglo-American co-operation is discussed in two pamphlets issued by the British Information Services (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. Free). *Britain and the Common Pool* explains the workings of mutual aid among the United Nations, not only in the Lend-Lease of materials, but in the poolings of troops, leadership, ideas, scientific discoveries, research, drugs, and other ways. Most of the pamphlet is devoted to photographs with descriptions showing the variety and extent of Britain's Mutual Aid program to the United States, Russia, and France, and is, of course, designed to show Americans that Britain is doing her share in return for our Lend-Lease.

The other pamphlet is entitled *Britain versus Japan*, and emphasizes to Americans that Britain is our ally against Japan as much as against Germany. It explains why Britain must be profoundly concerned in the defeat of Japan because of her many vital interests in the Pacific and Asia. Past British accomplishments in the Far East are described, as well as the present fight against Japan. The pamphlet is composed of illustrations and text in about equal parts.

Two problems that peace will bring are the subjects of Public Affairs Pamphlets recently published (Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. 10 cents). *Reconversion—The Job Ahead*, by J. A. Livingston, is an excellent summary of the issue which is already coming into the forefront of Congress' attention and that of the country at large. It first states the general basic factors in the problem, and then takes up such specific questions as which plants should be reconverted first, the question of competition, the method of terminating contracts, and the disposal of government plants and surplus property. Emphasis is on the difficulties which face us in reaching acceptable decisions. The treatment is objective, authoritative, and stimulating. It should be useful for current problems classes.

The other Public Affairs Pamphlet is *Freedom of the Air*, by Keith Hutchinson. This very readable booklet discusses the history of international agreements and disagreements over air jurisdiction, and the problems inherent in the question of freedom of the air. The author is convinced that sovereign monopolies of air lanes must be avoided. If peace and international commerce are to be secure after the war, there must be a permanent representative board to have wide

authority over the questions of air jurisdiction.

The Outlook for Synthetic Rubber, by Melvin A. Brenner (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-First Street, N.W., Washington 6. 25 cents) is an interesting and scholarly analysis of the synthetic-rubber industry's place in post-war economy. The author believes that eventually synthetic rubber may compete favorably with the natural product both in price and quality, especially if government aids it to survive the competition of natural rubber in the immediate post-war years. The discussion is not too technical for the average adult.

Proposed Plans for the Prevention of War, by Dr. Joseph Kise (Melberg Press, Moorhead, Minnesota. 20 cents) is a 44-page booklet prepared for use as a text for high school social-science classes. The subject is especially timely and important since it is certain to play a leading part in discussions in our schools this year. The presentation is very brief, of course, but it provides a useful summary. Following a short glossary of terms, and a section on the necessity of education as a means of promoting international understanding, the main body of the pamphlet describes a number of widely advocated methods of preventing future wars. Included are a discussion of the League of Nations, with the arguments for and against it; proposed regional organizations; the "Union Now" plan of Clarence Streit; an alliance of great powers; and short comments on other proposals. The pamphlet should have considerable value for high school classes.

Clothing and Shelter for European Relief (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-First Street, N.W., Washington 6. 25 cents) is the fourth in a series of pamphlets from NPA's Special Project on Relief and Rehabilitation. This booklet analyzes in detail the amounts of various commodities that America will need to send to Europe in the first year of peace; considers the effects the program will have on American economy; and the best methods of administration. The program as analyzed is hopeful. It holds forth promise that the policy to be followed will be sensible—businesslike as far as possible, and humane where charity is required. It does not seem likely that the errors and ill-will resulting from the unpaid war loans of 1918 will be repeated, nor that the American tax-payer will have to bear too great a burden. The pamphlet is not for high school use but is well worth adult study.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

The "March of Time" film, *Youth in Crisis*, which documents the story of juvenile delinquency in America, is now available for booking through the University System of Georgia, Division of General Extension, 223 Walton Street, N.W., Atlanta. The running time of the film is 18 minutes, and the service charge is \$2.00.

The Army Uses Training Films is the title of an interesting booklet offered free by Radiant Screen Corp., 1144 W. Superior Street, Chicago.

The entire stock of Eastman Classroom Films, and also distribution and sale rights, have been turned over to the University of Chicago. The University of Chicago now controls Encyclopaedia Britannica Films (formerly Erpi) and Eastman Classroom Films. A catalog of *Silent Teaching Films* describing the Eastman Films may be had from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York 23.

The Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, 444 Madison Avenue, New York 22, will send, on request, a new 20-page brochure entitled *The Other American Republics in Films* which lists 16-mm. motion-picture films on South and Central America and indicates where they may be secured.

A manual on screens and projection is included in Catalogue 41 of the Da-Lite Screen Co., Inc., 2711 North Crawford Avenue, Chicago 39. Schools may now purchase new metal-mounted projection screen equipment in amounts up to \$100 by certifying to an AA-2 priority.

Reprints of three articles by Francis W. Noel, USNR, entitled "The Navy Turns to Training Aids," may be had free from the Radio Corporation of America, RCA Victor Division, Camden, New Jersey. The articles originally appeared in *School Executive*.

Erpi Film News is a four-page leaflet sent to teachers interested in film developments. For your copy write to Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York 23.

A list of useful "free" films has just been issued by General Motors Corp., 1775 Broadway, New York, Room 1203.

The Canadian Government is actively pro-

ducing a large number of films interpreting the life of our northern neighbor. A list of United States sources for these films may be had from J. Margaret Carter, National Film Board of Canada, 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago 1.

The fourth edition of *Educators Guide to Free Films* has been issued, in mimeographed form, by Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin. In this edition are listed 2165 films of which 444 are 16-mm. silent, 1185 are 16-mm. sound, 206 are 35-mm. silent, and 330 are 35-mm. sound. In addition the guide lists 203 slidefilms suitable for classroom use. The films and slidefilms are listed according to subject-matter breakdowns similar to those followed in most state and city courses of study. The source index gives the complete address of the organizations from which the films may be obtained. The *Guide* costs \$3.00.

Recent 16-mm. Releases

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Center, New York 20.

ABCA. 15 minutes, sound; sale, \$17.00, rental, 75 cents. How the British Army Bureau of Current Affairs keeps soldiers informed.

Letter From Ireland. 22 minutes, sound. Life among American soldiers in Northern Ireland.

Nation Within a Nation. 16 minutes, sound. Exiles living in London.

New Towns For Old. 7 minutes, sound; sale, \$8.50, rental, 50 cents. How cities may be planned when rebuilt after the war.

Tank Patrol. 37 minutes, sound. How the crew of a stranded tank in the desert eludes the enemy.

Up Periscope. 21 minutes, sound. British submarine patrol in North Sea.

Business Films, 1124 Ninth Street, N. W., Washington 1.

Sugar. 20 minutes, sound, color; loan. Story of the sugar-beet industry.

Castle Films, Inc., RCA Building, Rockefeller Center, New York 20.

Eruption of Vesuvius. 10 minutes, sound or silent; sale, sound \$12.50, silent \$8.75. Scenes of the recent eruption.

Harvests for Tomorrow. 30 minutes, sound; sale, \$21.71. Soil conservation in New England.

Teamwork. 9 minutes, sound; sale, \$8.01. How the Department of Agriculture helps the farmer meet production problems.

Yanks Invade Marshall Islands. 10 minutes, sound or silent; sale, sound \$17.50, silent \$8.75. Storming of Kwajalein and Roi.

Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, 444 Madison Avenue, New York 22. (Write for address of nearest distributor. Small service charge is made on each film.)

The Bridge. 30 minutes, sound. How air travel opens up Latin America.

Housing in Chile. 19 minutes, sound. Shows a new Chilean housing project.

Peru's Coastal Plain. 10 minutes, sound, color. Agriculture and life of the people.

Wealth of the Andes. 19 minutes, sound, color. Copper mining in Brazil.

Young Uruguay. 19 minutes, sound. Play and schooling in Uruguay.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York 23. (These films may be rented from many film libraries. Write to your nearest source for rates.)

"Canadian Regional Series." 4 reels, sound; \$45 each reel.

The Maritime Provinces. 10 minutes. The independent agricultural section.

The Industrial Provinces. 10 minutes. An example of a balanced economy.

The Prairie Provinces. 10 minutes. The wheat growing region.

Pacific Canada. 10 minutes. An area of great potentiality.

Walter O. Gutlohn, Inc., 25 West 45th Street, New York 19.

Norway Replies. 60 minutes, sound; rental, apply. Norway's part in the struggle against fascism.

National Film Board of Canada, 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago 1. (Write for name of nearest distributor.)

Battle Is Our Business. 35 minutes, sound. Basic training to battle drill.

Fight for Liberty. 37 minutes, sound. The second year of World War II.

Fighting Ships. 24 minutes, sound. Canada's wartime shipbuilding.

Fur Country. 23 minutes, sound, color. The life and work of the fur trapper.

Global Air Routes. 20 minutes, sound. Need for an international code to prevent national rivalries.

Great Lakes. 20 minutes, sound, color. The industries and shipping on the Great Lakes.

Ottawa on the River. 18 minutes, sound. Life in Ottawa.

Peoples of Canada. 21 minutes, sound. How the Canadians get along together.

Soldiers All. 20 minutes, sound. Men of British Commonwealth in training.

Strategy of Metals. 19 minutes, sound. Canada's mineral wealth.

Wings of Youth. 19 minutes, sound. How Canada is preparing for a new future in the air.

Zero Hour. 20 minutes, sound. The story of the invasion.

Office of War Information, Bureau of Motion Pictures, Washington 25. (Write for address of nearest distributor.)

Dutch Tradition. 27 minutes, sound; loan. Reviews Dutch industries before the war. Contrasts former greatness with life under the Nazis.

The Negro Soldier. 30 minutes, sound; loan. Part of the Negro soldier in the war.

New Soldiers Are Tough. 20 minutes, sound; loan. Soldiers of the United Nations.

Prices Unlimited. 10 minutes, sound; loan. What would happen to prices if we did not have rationing.

Task Force. 18 minutes, sound, color; loan. Conveying an invasion fleet.

Pictorial Films, Inc., RKO Building, Radio City, New York 20.

Air Crew. 20 minutes, sound; rental, apply. Behind the scenes at U.S. Naval Air Training Station, Jacksonville, Florida.

Medicine on Guard. 25 minutes, sound; rental, apply. Health on the home front.

Princeton Film Center, 410 Nassau Street, Princeton, New Jersey.

Empire on Parade. 40 minutes, sound. The Northwestern section of the United States.

Loaded for War. 25 minutes, sound, color. The railroads' part in the war effort.

Santa Fe Railway, 80 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago.

Along the Old Santa Fe Trail. 15 minutes, silent or sound, color. Travelog along Pacific coast.

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Motion Pictures, Washington. (Write for name of nearest distributor.)

Farm Work Is War Work. 31 minutes, sound; loan. Work of the Volunteer Land Corps.

Your American Tragedy. 3 minutes, sound; loan. A short dedicated to prevention of forest fires.

War Department, Bureau of Public Relations, Washington. (Write for name of nearest distributor.)

Battle of Russia. 90 minutes, sound; loan. One of the "Why We Fight" series. Uses historical approach to Russia's part in the war.

Radio Notes

A monthly day-by-day listing of outstanding NBC radio programs may be had by writing to "This is the National Broadcasting Company," Room 217, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. This program announcement is especially well suited for pasting on the bulletin board. Special programs such as "Cavalcade of America" may be specially marked to call them to the student's attention.

An interesting experiment in FM (Frequency Modulation) broadcasting is being worked out between the New York City Board of Education and the National Broadcasting Company. Students will be given the opportunity to work on radio script writing, production, and broadcasting. They will receive credit toward graduation for successfully completing the prescribed courses. It is hoped that another feature of this plan will be the development of radio appreciation and discriminating listening among secondary-school students.

Many school systems are planning to set up their own FM broadcasting stations after the war. Instructors interested in this development should write to Electronics Department, General Electric Co., Schenectady, New York, for a copy of the booklet "How to Plan an FM Station."

Schedules of the British Broadcasting Company's North American Service may be received monthly by writing to the British Broadcasting Corp., 630 Fifth Avenue, New York 20.

The growing interest in radio as an instrument of education may be gauged by the announcement from CBS that more than 173,000 Teacher's Manuals for the "American School of the Air" were distributed during the past school year. Copies of the current Teacher's Manual may be obtained free from Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Avenue, New York.

"They Call Me Joe," a presentation of the NBC University of the Air, brings typical American family sagas behind men and women in our armed forces—stories of those who came here one, two, or more generations ago and contributed to our heritage. See local listings for time and station.

Pictures and Posters

School Service, Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Co., 306 Fourth Avenue, Pittsburgh 30, has a number of poster-size picture-stories, free from advertising of any kind, which they will send free to teachers. An especially good item is "From Tom-Tom to Walkie Talkie, the Story of Military Signaling."

A photographic exhibit, "The Negro in American Life," is being circulated by the Council Against Intolerance in America, 17 East 42nd Street, New York 17. The exhibit consists of 24 large placards with eight to ten photographs on each placard. The exhibit is sent to public schools without charge except for cost of expressing.

A device for displaying pictures and other materials in the classroom is "Multiplex" a wing-panel type of bulletin board. A catalog listing models and prices may be had by writing Multiplex Display Fixture Co., 910-920 N. Tenth Street, St. Louis, Missouri.

A "Resources Map of Australia," a poster showing Australian mammals, and a booklet on *The Australian Way of Life* may be obtained from Australian News and Information Bureau, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20. Ten cents covers cost of handling.

Stripfilms

A series of 15 stripfilms on transportation is being distributed by Stillfilm, Inc., 8443 Melrose Avenue, Hollywood 46, California. The cost of this series of films is \$14.50. These stripfilms are printed on 35-mm. motion-picture film and are projected with a stripfilm projector. These pro-

jectors are available from the same source at \$38.50 and up.

Attention has already been called, through these columns, to the *Coronet* slidefilms (the same as the stripfilms described above). These slidefilms are copies of the picture story which appears monthly in *Coronet* magazine. The eight subjects which have been released during the past eight months are: "Through the Periscope," "China Fights Back," "Queens Never Die," (story of the S.S. "Normandy") "Anchors Aweigh," "A World and Two Wars," "Dedication," "Panic," and "American Counterpoint." During the coming season eight more slidefilms will be made available at \$8.00 for the series.

Slides and Stereographs

Closely allied with stripfilms are 2x2-inch slides which may be projected on many of the machines which project filmstrips. Over 800 color slides on Latin America are distributed by the Kime Kodachromes, 1823 East Morado Place, Altadena, California.

Two new units of teaching materials which should be welcomed by social studies teachers are "Glimpses of the South Sea Islands" and "Glimpses of New Zealand and Australia." Prepared by the Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pennsylvania, each unit consists of 25 picture slides or stereographs and one map slide. The stereograph unit costs \$6.25; the slide unit \$24.45.

Inter-American Material

The Division of Inter-American Educational Relations, U. S. Office of Education, 26th and Water Streets, N.W., Washington, has gathered together into packets a great deal of valuable materials on Inter-American friendship. The materials for these packets have been contributed by school systems, federal agencies, educational organizations, United Nations Information offices, and publishers. The packets are loaned without cost to schools for a period of two weeks. Not more than two packets may be ordered at one time. Packets are graded as suitable for elementary, high school, or adult groups. Among the packets which will be of special interest to social studies teachers are "Plays, Pageants, and Programs," "The Development of Pan Americanism," "The Americas and the War," "Pan American Student Clubs," "Current Problems." Each packet contains books, magazine articles, maps, bibliographies, and pamphlets.

A well-illustrated booklet entitled *Making Friends with Mexico* may be obtained from American Airlines, Inc., New York.

Book Reviews

THE LEAGUE TO ENFORCE PEACE. By Ruhl J. Bartlett. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1944. Pp. 252. \$2.50.

A quarter of a century ago there was organized a movement, chiefly by leading Republicans and headed by William Howard Taft, which by its vigor had won a large body of public support and then failed in the crisis over the League of Nations because of the bitter anti-Wilson feud led by Senator Lodge. There are many who today will not want to be reminded of the historical facts here recorded, nor is it the author's purpose to indulge in name-calling. Without recrimination this examination of the movement creates a feeling that the League to Enforce Peace was headed, during the First World War, for great things, but when its objectives were sponsored by President Wilson, those of the opposition both as members of the league and in Congress temporized by vacillation in judgment or resolved to oppose a League or the League rather than support a Democratic-sponsored movement.

A post-war association of nations to maintain the peace is now again being considered during wartime, and an honest historical analysis of this earlier well-intentioned movement should be compulsory reading for leaders of both parties and the public as well. The peace movement among men is not new, and Professor Bartlett, historian at Tufts College, chooses to record the greatest American effort ever made. His book is highly factual. Bryan's insistence on a peace *without* force, Senator Lodge's contention early in 1915 that the peace must be an enforced one, Hamilton Holt's leadership in the cause of peace in 1914, Elihu Root's refusal to co-operate, the support of the league's program by the U. S. Chamber of Commerce, Herbert Hoover's reminder in 1920 to the Republican party of its responsibility "to put into living being the principle of an organized association of nations," and many other items indicate the factual nature of the book.

The League to Enforce Peace had gotten off to a good nonpartisan start. Wilson, Lodge, and Taft had spoken in favor of its program from the same platform at one meeting of the league. Yet by 1919 there were irreconcilables and op-

ponents who destroyed the peace ideal so that when Harding became President he cared not to be reminded of his campaign statement that some association of nations, if not the League of Nations, was his ambition. During the contest in the U.S. Senate over reservations to the Covenant of the League of Nations, the influence of the League to Enforce Peace became feeble and "actually transferred much of its prestige and influence to the anti-League forces." Its failure should point the way by historical example to the need to handle the peace issue by the light of that experiment. The unprejudiced reader will ask, will partisan animosity again postpone a guaranteed peace?

MELVILLE J. BOYER

Allentown High School
Allentown, Pennsylvania

AMERICAN DIPLOMACY IN ACTION: A SERIES OF CASE STUDIES. By Richard W. Van Alstyne. Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1944. Pp. xvi, 760. \$5.00.

The teaching of diplomatic history has taken on enhanced significance in recent years. Two world wars within a generation have brought today's students sharply up against the problems of American foreign policy. It is therefore of paramount importance that the subject be presented effectively and in vital relationship to contemporary issues. This Professor Van Alstyne has sought to achieve in this volume, and his book goes a long way toward satisfying the requirements. The method used combines case study with the more traditional chronological approach. The author groups his material under three main headings: Security and the Monroe Doctrine; Expansion and the Concept of Manifest Destiny; and Neutrality and Isolation. The relative emphasis is indicated by the fact that 439 pages of the text are devoted to the first general topic, 161 to the second, and 87 to the third.

On the subject of "Security," the author starts with a 47-page survey of the problem from 1776 to the present; 29 chapters are then grouped into five sections on Continental Security; Middle America; Isthmian Security and Police Power in the Caribbean; Hemispheric Security; Collective

Security: The Balance of Power and the Development of the Idea; and Freedom of the Seas: Protection of the Flag and of Trade Routes. The second part, on expansionism, is introduced by a 15-page summary of this tendency in American history. The 15 chapters of this part are grouped under the headings: Continental Expansion; Caribbean and Isthmian Expansion; and Expansion in Eastern Asia and the Pacific. Part III, dealing with neutrality, is also introduced by a brief general survey of the subject. Three chapters each are devoted to Foreign Enlistment; Impressment and the Right of Search; and Neutrality and the Belligerent Control of Commerce. This volume closes with discussion of the question: "What will be the international position of the country at the end of the Second World War?" In this the author appropriately emphasizes the need for a dynamic international policy in the post-war period.

The case-study approach to the teaching of American diplomatic history, as is pointed out in the foreword, has parallels in the study of law. There is also the development of the unit system of organization of social-science material in the secondary schools and the problem method in the colleges to justify this newer approach in the diplomatic-history field. Obviously the method presents troublesome problems of selection, chronology, and clarity of issues. The author has been very conscientious in the matter of inclusiveness. Relatively little material of importance has been omitted. There are also included case studies not previously included in textbooks on American diplomatic history. This very inclusiveness at times gets in the way of clarity of issues. When one adds to these two problems the element of chronology, one sees at once the magnitude of the difficulties faced by Professor Van Alstyne. The sense of continuity is preserved by the excellent, brief introductions to each of the major divisions of the volume. Even with these, however, the reviewer, as he read the volume through, found himself debating whether or not the collateral use of a more traditionally organized manual might not prove essential to the best use of the case-study material here presented. The reviewer concluded that this would depend largely upon the preparation and background of the teacher, and that the answer to the question could come only from experience with the volume in the classroom.

This volume probably represents the best possible compromise between inclusiveness, chronology, and problem study that can be achieved

in a book of publishable length. Certainly the volume is teachable, and the author writes well. There is a useful bibliography and an adequate index. There are only seven maps, including those on the end sheets. In a volume using the case-study approach, more maps would seem desirable. In general, Professor Van Alstyne has made a laudable contribution to the literature available for effective teaching of American diplomatic history.

CARLTON C. QUALEY

Swarthmore College

OUR AIR-AGE WORLD: A TEXTBOOK IN GLOBAL GEOGRAPHY. By Leonard O. Packard, Bruce Overton, and Ben D. Wood. New York: Macmillan, 1944. Pp. ix, 838. \$2.80.

This high school text on global geography contains eight parts, namely: Global Geography (155 pp.); The United States in a Global War (256 pp.); The Other Americas (102 pp.); Europe—A Continent in Turmoil (123 pp.); Asia—A World Problem (63 pp.); Lands Down Under (13 pp.); Africa—An Air-Age Crossroads (21 pp.); and the World of Tomorrow (25 pp.).

Part One, Global Geography, is presented to the students in discussion form in six topics, with a chapter for each. The headings of these chapters are: A New Point of View; The Earth Is a Sphere; The Ocean of Air; The Surface of the Earth; World Wide Occupations; and the World of Nations. The two chapters on "The Ocean of Air" and "The Surface of the Earth" are too brief, and many would question the wisdom of the subject matter selected. Because of the sketchy treatment of these two vital factors of the physical environment, air and land, one wonders why the chapters were ever included. Factors of the physical environment such as climate, landforms, soil, and waterbodies are not developed enough to interpret the economic conditions described in later chapters. In fact, throughout the book emphasis is placed on facts and description. Environmental interpretation is meager and not very penetrating.

Following the introductory part, the land areas of the world are treated by continents. Many will question the space allotted to the various continents. For example, the part on "Asia—A World Problem" is given 63 pages in comparison with the 123 pages given to "Europe" and the 102 pages given to the "Other Americas."

The last part of the book, on "The World of Tomorrow," brings the students back from a

continental viewpoint discussion to a world perspective of some of the problems facing them in the future.

The book is profusely illustrated with pictures, diagrams, pictographs, and maps. Teachers and students may well profit by answering the questions and following the suggestions made under the headings: Guides to Study; Topics for Class Discussion; and Work to Be Done. These questions and suggestions appear not only at the end of the chapters but within the chapters at the end of an important topic. The forty-one pages of maps and tables in the appendix should prove very useful. In the bibliography found at the end of the last chapter, the books for supplementary reading appear more suitable for a college course.

At present classroom interest would be stimulated by this book because of the stress placed on current events, timely illustrations, aviation, Air-Age outlook, and the practical phases of winning the war. However, the book is distinctly "dated" and should the war end in a year or two rather than lasting ten years then the book would quickly be outdated. For example, in Part Two, *The United States in a Global War*, two chapters have the headings, "Victory Is Our Nation's Business" and "Food Is Ammunition."

When examining this book as a possible text, a teacher or administrator might consider the following questions: Does the book try to cover too much subject matter? Does the book have a correct balance between description and interpretation of geographical facts? Has too much emphasis been placed on the winning of the war rather than on the winning of the peace? Will the book teach pupils the need for Christian living and co-operation between all nations to insure peace? Would the book cause the students to lose themselves in a maze of briefly developed topics? Is the book too skeletonized, leaving too much of the responsibility upon the teacher?

When selected this book will serve as a text for a year of geography. Geography taught with this book should be classified in the social studies field or area.

THOMAS H. BARTON

Southern Illinois Normal University

SIX THOUSAND YEARS OF BREAD; ITS HOLY AND UNHOLY HISTORY. By H. E. Jacob. Tr. by Richard and Clara Winston. New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1944. Pp. xiv, 399. \$4.50.

This is an effort to write history around one factor—bread. All such efforts cause a certain amount of forcing of the evidence. This book is no exception. The period covered is from prehistoric times to the present.

The valuable side of the book is the part that tells of the technical developments in bread-making and in producing grain for the bread. A good sample of this material is the following:

Raised bread can not be prepared from millet, oats, barley or corn. Therefore, the history of bread revolves upon wheat and rye. . . . bread, in the technical sense of the word, is a discovery of man—one of his first great chemical triumphs.

Bread is a product baked in a properly constructed oven from a dough that has been raised by yeast or some other leavening agent. Some of the gases produced by the leavening are imprisoned in the dough. The pores containing these gases are hardened and made permanent by heat. Only dough made from wheat or rye flour possesses the ability to retain gases; this is due to specific properties of the protein peculiar to the grains. Long ago occidental man acquired a definite preference of raised bread instead of cooked cereals and flat breads.

The title of one of the early chapters of the book is "Egypt: The Discovery of Baking"; ". . . and from that day on 'reproductive sour dough' was as sacredly preserved in Egyptian households as was the hearth fire among other people. They dared not lose the precious primal stuff of baking. The stuff that 'raised' the bread."

Seemingly the Greeks were slow to copy the ordinary knowledge about bread and agriculture in general. "As regards the technique of agriculture, the Greeks created virtually nothing new; they beautified agricultural tools but did not improve them. They passed on the plow as they had received it. As late as the seventh century B.C. (as we learn from Hesiod's "Works and Days") they were without the iron plowshare that the Hebrews had been using in 1100 B.C. in the time of Saul. Furthermore, the Greeks knew nothing of the advantages of rotation of crops. Other peoples were well enough informed to sow different crops each year."

During the course of 3,000 years bakers and millers dropped from the status of persons with mystical powers to exploiters who were the cause of the misery of the poor. On page 262 the amazing story of the building of the first roller mill is told. It has as many unusual turns as the best mystery story. Before that event grinding flour was expensive and difficult. After that almost any amount of flour could be ground. "In 1879 Washburn, the Governor of the State, sent for the Hungarian engineers and roller mills were erected all over Minnesota."

The most debatable sections of the book are those long passages which argue that the handling of the grain and bread problem caused such events as the fall of Rome and the French Revolution. Much time is devoted to a discussion of the provisions of bread and its relation to the development of religion. Teachers of history, social studies, and economics need the story of history built around the ordinary factors of everyday life. Certainly bread is one of these factors. Many parts of this book will prove of value to such teachers and their students. Enough books of this type should lead to a more rounded study of man's development than we now teach.

HAROLD F. CLARK

Teachers College
Columbia University

THE RISE OF AMERICAN ECONOMIC LIFE. By Arthur Cecil Bining. New York: Scribner's, 1943. Pp. xii, 732. \$4.00.

This volume is divided into four periods by the Revolution, the Civil War, and the First World War, the first and last periods receiving less space than the others. Each chapter traces a topic through one of the periods. The general organization of the book is excellent except that perhaps Chapter XXII on the transportation system after the Civil War ought to precede Chapter XV on "Development of Large Scale Enterprise." Railroad combinations developed somewhat earlier than industrial combinations and a well-developed transportation system was prerequisite to the organization of industry on a national scale. The treatment of each topic is largely factual, without much attempt at interpretation or the evaluation of trends, and in some cases the reader is not given the facts needed to provide his own: there is a section on "A Period of Rising Prices" after 1897 (pp. 486, 487), but neither here nor elsewhere is it stated that prices had been falling steadily during the preceding thirty years.

As the preface indicates (p. v), special attention has been given to technological developments. Some of the best parts of the book deal with the development of the colonial iron industry, a subject on which the author is an authority. In general, industrial development receives more attention than agriculture. Agrarian political and economic problems receive adequate treatment, but there is little about the life and activities on the farm or about the impact of science and invention upon agriculture since the Civil War.

There is no satisfactory discussion of mercantilist theory. Certain aspects of the westward movement, such as the importance of the navigation of the Mississippi and of other western rivers to the frontier, and the railroad background of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, are slighted. Mistaken impressions in regard to important phases of the public-land system are conveyed in the statements that the Morrill land-grant-college law gave each state "public lands within its borders" (p. 458), overlooking the fact that many states contained no public lands; or that homesteaders could not settle within twenty or forty miles of land-grant railroads (p. 424), when they were free to take up claims on alternate sections within this area. There is no discussion of the difficulties of the grazing interests on the Great Plains in dealing with a land system not intended for a semi-arid country. In the chapter on labor after the Civil War, a clearer distinction might have been drawn between the various forms of labor organization. The significance of Debs' American Railway Union as an early form of industrial unionism is overlooked. The A.R.U.'s real opponent in the Pullman Strike, the General Managers' Association, is not mentioned either in connection with this strike or in the section on employer's associations. There are some rather confusing statements about money. The Sherman Silver Purchase Act did not result in "increasing a depreciating silver currency" (p. 522): silver dollars were redeemable in gold. The assertion that from June, 1933, to January, 1934, "the country was on a depreciated paper money basis" (p. 622) seems to assume that the money was depreciated if it was irredeemable, an assumption which appears to be contradicted by the statement on the next page that during this period prices failed to rise. The change of the United States between 1914 and 1918 from a debtor to a creditor nation receives little attention.

A considerable amount of political and diplomatic history has been included for the very desirable purpose of explaining the background of economic developments. It seems to this reviewer, however, that some of this material, not directly related to economic history, might have been omitted. Since this is one of the briefer volumes on its subject, and since it seems at times to suffer in clarity from over-condensation, some of the space so occupied might have been better used to expand other topics.

There are a few obvious typographical errors and a number of minor misstatements: e.g., in 1679 New Hampshire became a royal province,

not a crown colony (p. 37); no English colony in North America was founded "directly by the king" (p. 47); "Wild Bill" Hickock was never a professional bad man (p. 431); and "Sockless Jerry" Simpson was so called for other reasons than "an obvious personal eccentricity" (p. 452). The style is uneven. It is sometimes clear and direct, but the reader's attention is often distracted by peculiar diction or puzzling sentence structure, which sometimes reaches the point where it fails to say what it means or it doesn't mean what it says. The following are examples: "the political organization of land" (p. 63); colonial laws which "placed heavy duties on the exportation of leather at different times" (p. 88); the English clergy "varying from the bishops and town clergy to the anomalous country parsons" (p. 54); "the tidewater sections of the back country" (p. 115); interlocking directorates which "achieved similar objectives as the holding company and merger" (p. 384); the importance of Samoa to the United States "because of its location between the Pacific coastal United States as well as Panama and Australia" (p. 547). Revision is indicated. There are useful bibliographies for further reading at the end.

DONALD L. MCMURRY

Russell Sage College

THE WAY OUR PEOPLE LIVED. By W. E. Woodward. New York: Dutton, 1944. Pp. 402; plates. \$3.95.

Those with whom Mr. Woodward has won a reputation as a pioneer in American historiography will be disappointed to learn that in his present volume he has been scooped. Three years ago both A. K. Train and W. C. Langdon, to mention no other predecessors, wrote of everyday things in American life. Like Mr. Woodward these earlier books dealt with fashions, male and female; drinking, courting, and holiday customs; houses and furniture; prices and food; manners and gadgets. To add to these earlier mainstays miscellaneous information on gardens and flowers, transportation and jails, sidewalks and streets, city plans and dentistry is hardly a novelty.

But however customary his facts, Mr. Woodward is an innovator in presenting them. Unwilling merely to grind out dry-as-dust information in his eleven chapters, he provides for each not only a different locale and era but also a separate cast of fictional characters whose actions are an occasion for the description of their en-

vironment. Thus Philip McKenzie comes to Philadelphia from South Carolina as the Continental Congress debates independence, and Susan Pettigrew travels from New York to Cincinnati via the Pennsylvania Main Line in the boom thirties. Not quite the master of his technique in the earlier chapters, where the joints between incidents and subsequent exegesis show awkwardly, Mr. Woodward comes into his own toward the close where a chapter on a cotton-mill village in the eighties is a winning autobiography of the author's own childhood and youth in Graniteville, Georgia; and where a second chapter, New York in 1908, uses the "Dinner-at-eight" technique, if not as skillfully as Howells, at least expertly enough to interest our cinema magnates. By this time the volume seems more interested in its characters than it does in their surroundings. Perhaps this review could better be written by a devotee of historical novels.

The data in these pages will undoubtedly acquaint the reader with the surface features of American life. Only rarely is a venture made at deeper matters of economic organization and cultural pattern. From the stories the unwary may derive the impression that American men were generally pleasant and treated their wives, cheery persons, with kindness; that the conversation of both sexes, although spoken in the vernacular, tended to the pompous and didactic, and that in American life, always bathed in sunshine, there is only occasional pathos and never tragedy. Teachers, who use this volume for collateral reading, will find its unsystematic character a handicap. Since New York appears with some detail in three sketches, it is possible to trace the evolution of a city in time. Development of town life in the nineteenth century is confined largely to the South and, although data on farming is abundantly provided for the colonial era, this way of life virtually disappears after the Revolution with the exception of an account of the reaper. Nor do chapters on the same theme include the same topics. The absence of an index hampers the making of comparisons. As to whether any instruction worth while can be given so painlessly, the debate between pedagogues is still on and probably always will be. Meanwhile Mr. Woodward has written an ingenious and beguiling volume.

EDWARD C. KIRKLAND

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American Book Company

AMERICAN FREETHOUGHT, 1860-1914. By Sidney Warren, New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 257. \$3.25.

"Free or autonomous thought is the contrary of thought, research, science and philosophy fettered by the dogmas and principles of religion. Freethought recognizes no restriction but that imposed upon its progress by the rules of logic, scientific methodology, and epistemology." Starting with this accepted definition from the *Dictionary of Social Sciences*, Dr. Warren continues the story of American freethought for the period from the Civil War to the First World War. The period is not as notable for great adherents to the cause as was the time of the Revolution, when Jefferson, Franklin, Paine, Randolph, and Ethan Allen may be listed as deists, or even that before 1860, when the names of Frances Wright and Robert Owen stand out. There were, however, important leaders and it is probably true that, with the great advance of public education, there was as much popular support for freethought after 1860 as there had been before.

American freethought was not a unified movement for, by its very nature, there might be as many answers to the questions it raised as there

were supporters to its answers. In general, however, freethought had, as its left wing, the dogmatic atheists, represented by D. M. Bennett, publisher of *The Truth Seeker*; as its center, the agnostics, led by the brilliant Robert G. Ingersoll; and, as its right wing, the Free Religious movement, in which many prominent Americans were joined—men and women like Theodore Parker, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Charles Eliot Norton, Lucretia Mott, Robert Dale Owen, and Rabbi Isaac M. Wise.

The sources of the freethought movement were equally variegated. One, especially powerful throughout the nineteenth century, was scientific in nature, stemming from the world-wide discussion of Darwin's *Origin of Species*, published in 1859. Discussion in America was led by John Fiske, who effected a reconciliation between religion and science by his cosmic philosophy. Lester Frank Ward, America's first great sociologist, and Asa Gray. This was one of the great intellectual conflicts of the past century and countless thousands were more or less deeply concerned in it. Another source was philosophical and was typified by Parker, Ward, and Clarence Darrow, connecting with our own times. Still another

source was iconoclastic, exemplified by Ingersoll; while a final source seemed to be socialistic, deriving largely from the influence of Marx's definition of religion as the "opium of the people."

The freethought movement was not successful in numbers or influence, though a weakness in the book seems to be the lack of a statistical study, admittedly difficult. In America, there were no established churches or laws interfering with the free practice or the non-practice of any religious faith, though Mr. Warren has a few examples of legal pressure on atheists. To most, therefore, the movement seemed like setting up a straw man in the face both of intense social pressure for the churches and the calumny that the word "atheist" had come to carry. It required much courage and study to become a freethinker, and more publicly avow such belief. It required effort, brought no financial return but only social disgrace, despite the phrase from the treaty with the government of Tripoli (1797) that freethinkers were fond of quoting, "As the government of the United States is not in any sense founded on the Christian religion. . . ."

This book will be of great interest to all students of intellectual history, of the continuing problem of church and state, and of the post-Civil War era.

RICHARD J. STANLEY

State Department of Education
Hartford, Connecticut

A HISTORY OF LATIN AMERICA FOR SCHOOLS. By Samuel Guy Inman and C. E. Castañeda. New York: Macmillan, 1944. Pp. xii, 442. \$2.20.

This is the high school text in the Macmillan Inter-American Series. While its subject-matter organization is similar to that of the junior high school text in the series, considerably less attention is paid to the routine of life of the individual Latin American and a great deal more is given to societal life and history. In both books the arrangement is such that not only are they adaptable to various kinds and lengths of courses, but, where both are in use in a school system, undue duplication can be avoided by omitting suitable sections of one or the other text.

A History of Latin America is arranged in four more or less independent sections. "Preview to a Continent" describes the Latin Americans, their racial relations, and their geographical environment by way of introduction to Part II, "The Background of a Continent," which is largely internal history. Political, economic, and cultural relations of the Latin Americans with each other

and with the rest of the world make up the third section, while Part IV tells of our southern neighbors' achievements in literature, art, and music.

A rather abundant supply of pictographs and maps and a variety of photographic illustrations with explanatory captions will appeal to the eye of the student and to the teacher as welcome aids. Many will also approve the double-column make-up of the textual matter. Running table of contents, good index, elaborate study equipment, and excellent bibliographies on the high school level all add to the volume's usefulness, as do detailed directions for establishing correspondence with Latin American students.

The tone of *A History of Latin America* is in accord with the newer concepts of the proper "slant" for teaching materials dealing with foreign peoples. There is none of the condescending use of such adjectives as "odd," "peculiar," and "quaint," which until recently too often colored such materials. And while the less creditable things are not glossed over, the emphasis is on the constructive aspects of Latin-American life, as for instance: "The age of the conquistadors, however, is not to be regarded as one merely of adventure. Indeed, it was an age of creation—new cities, new churches, new universities, even a new race" (p. 111).

The instability and pecuniousness of governments in the other Americas, so scoffed at in the United States as another demonstration of the outlandishness of an inferior people, is not so treated here. Rather the factors which have made it difficult for Latin Americans to develop democratic techniques are stated and discussed repeatedly. In this connection, it is shown that, lacking a pattern of government from colonial days, the individualistic Latin American judges as a tyrant any leader who energetically suppresses lawlessness and compels people to act unitedly. That leader's overthrow by armed forces is consequently considered deliverance from tyranny. But eliminating the "tyrant" leads to anarchy, which in turn calls forth another *caudillo*, or strong man, to try to create order, etc., etc. While we in the United States call these changes of leaders revolutions, they are not often revolutions in any real sense. Nor are the Latin-American dictators to be judged by United States standards, for "a strong central government may be preferable to one that is run by ten-thousand town meetings, when few people in the towns know anything about the issues they are called to decide or can read the ballot they are supposed to cast" (p. 146).

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WAYNE ALVORD

Community High School
Pekin, Illinois

LATIN AMERICA: TWENTY FRIENDLY NATIONS. By Prudence Cutright, W. W. Charters, and George I. Sanchez. New York: Macmillan, 1944. Pp. xi, 450. \$2.00.

Well-bound, well-printed, with running table of contents, adequate index, and better than average study equipment, the book is physically a very satisfactory publication. Whether children of the upper grades can cope with a volume of 450 pages is questionable, even though a great amount of space is given to maps and pictures and the type is large.

Arrangement of contents is such that the text is adaptable to various kinds of general or special courses. Part I, From the Past to the Present, is largely history, Indian and Colonial. Part II, The Latin-American Republics Today, deals with each country's geography and the way of life of its people. And Part III, The Americas Learn to Work Together, deals in part with United

States relations and in part with transportation facilities.

Part II, the most extensive, is also the most suitable section for children of the upper grades. It will serve to acquaint them with the dress, vegetation, food, implements, institutions, and daily routine of life in the other Americas. Although the treatment of the various countries is very uneven in scope and extent, the largest and most important ones have full treatment. Some narrative quality is imparted by inclusion in some cases of partial history of the national period.

In Part I, the rather extensive account of Indian life before Spanish control is excellent in content and in treatment. But the Spanish colonial history therein and the inter-American relations portion of Part III will probably prove rather baffling to the ordinary student. More political interest and knowledge is presupposed than most children have.

Whether or not there was an attempt to make the contents of this text coincide with the recommendations made in the report of the survey of Latin American Content of Teaching Materials sponsored by the American Council in Education, it is heartening to find some such coincidence. The report urges that parallels in Latin-American and United States history should be shown. A good bit of that is done in *Latin Ameri-*

ca. It is also notable that there is concurrence with the report's urging that there be no furthering of *la leyenda negra*, the time-honored legend that the Spanish *conquistadores* were all black-hearted scoundrels and that Spanish colonizations was purely a plundering process.

The Macmillan Company has also recently published a high school text in Latin-American history. The fact that its general plan is very similar to that of this text raises the question of the grading of Latin-American materials. Are students to be given repeated doses of the same information, with each dose a little stronger than the previous one? Or is there to be a separation of kinds of information, with presumably more difficult material being introduced at each succeeding level? In the two Macmillan books, the duplication of content and plan is more than just overlapping; it is—duplication. That does not detract from the merits of the individual texts, but considered together, it is questionable whether they are pedagogically all that could be desired.

WAYNE ALVORD

Community High School
Pekin, Illinois

●

TODAY'S AMERICAN DEMOCRACY. By John Lincoln Williams and Palmer Peckham Howard. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1943. Pp. vi, 620. \$1.96.

Messrs. Williams and Howard express in their Preface the hope that this single volume will serve the purpose for which many teachers now find it necessary to use several textbooks. Accordingly, in a style that is quite readable, they present an unusually wide range of topics. Among chapters not found in a number of other problems books appearing about the same time are those devoted to mental health, transportation and communication, problems of race, and use of leisure time. However, some significant areas such as housing and consumer economics suffer from inadequate treatment or even omission, and international affairs, both political and economic, are treated in too general a way to provide a basis for classroom discussion of post-war planning. The content as a whole is characterized more by an essay than a textbook type of presentation.

In addition to treating many and varied problems in their book the authors have tried to provide for each one a historical background, written from a liberal viewpoint. But in some instances these backgrounds are so condensed as to make

their value questionable. On many occasions the authors are compelled to state generalizations which because of the paucity of facts to bolster them lose their potential force and even their usefulness in creating scientific habits of thinking.

The authors, in their opening chapter, suggest that our complex social problems be examined in terms of the institutions and the cultural lags which give rise to social maladjustments today. But these key concepts are seldom referred to in the chapters which follow and which deal with the actual problems for an understanding of which these concepts are introduced. Likewise the authors fail to make frequent and specific enough reference throughout the volume to their fundamental thesis "that our social and economic tensions will yield to human intelligence, good will, and humility in the same manner as the problems of natural science and technology have in the past" (p. 553). Now these observations are not meant to imply that the teacher should have neither opportunity nor responsibility for guiding in her own way pupils' interpretation of their textbook. But a certain minimum of built-in organization is desirable in any textbook, and the present authors' division of their content into twenty-three distinct chapters, often without benefit of transitions and specific cross-references, tends to rob a number of closely related topics of the unity generally associated with them in a problems course.

Even in dealing with a single chapter the teacher using this volume will have to assume more than ordinary responsibility for directing the pupils' study. The essay style of writing sometimes leaves much to be desired in the way of detailed information and certainly minimizes the usefulness of the book for ready-reference purposes, despite the inclusion of a detailed index. On the other hand, those having access to the volume will appreciate such excellent chapters as those dealing with population problems, criminology, and aspects of mental health. In these, as in many other chapters, readers will note with satisfaction the attention given cause-and-effect relationships, particularly those involving the interplay of political and economic forces.

In developing these and other concepts, the teacher will find help in a number of photographs, most of which were obtained from governmental agencies but not all of which are reproduced, located, or captioned to the best advantage; some excellent pictorial charts and graphs; an unclassified, but relatively complete, bibliography for each chapter; a list of reference

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bookshelf titles; and copies of the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Atlantic Charter. Generally speaking, the other teaching aids furnished are of the conventional type.

The cataclysmic effects of World War II unfortunately will necessitate a comparatively early revision of *Today's American Democracy*.

KENNETH B. THURSTON
MAX P. ALLEN

Indiana University

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